THE KUSHANAS AND THE DECCAN

PART ONE

KANISHKA I AND THE DECCAN

(A STUDY IN THE PROBLEM OF RELATIONSHIP)

B. N. MUKHERJEE
M.A. (Cal.), Ph.D. (Lond.), F.S.A. (Lond.)

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TO PROF. S. K. SARASWAŢI MY MENTOR

PREFACE

This book is a study of an important aspect of the problem of relationship between the Imperial Kushāṇas and the Deccan. It critically evaluates the data which have been interpreted as indicating the rule of Kanishka I over a large portion of the peninsular India. Incidentally it also examines the possibility of any connection of the Kushāna monarchs preceding Kanishka I with that territory. The other part of the problem, relating to the question association of the successors of Kanishka I with the Deccan, will be discussed in near future in a separate volume. As a bibliography, relevant to the whole subject, will be furnished at the end of that volume, we have refrained from publishing a separate bibliography in the present one. Nevertheless, full references to the sources discussed in this text are given in the notes printed at the end of each chapter.

In spelling of proper names, we have tried to follow, with a few necessary exceptions, conventional forms. For example, the name of the son of the Kushāṇa king Kujula is written as V'ima Kadphises and not as V'ima Kathphiśa. Sin, appearing on Kushāṇa coins, has been transcribed as sha. The sound signified by san is known to have been expressed by the letter sha in Indian sources. No diacritical mark has been used, with a few exceptions, in modern proper names, including geographical. The term India denotes, unless otherwise indicated,

the Indian subcontinent comprising the territories of Indian Republic and Pakistan.

In course of my research I have received valuable advices and suggestions from Dr. R. G. Basak, Prof. S K. Saraswati, Prof. A. L. Basham, Prof. H. W. Bailey, Prof. E. J. Pulleyblank, Dr. S. K. Mitra, Dr. S. R. Banerjee and Dr. K. K Das Gupta. Translations of relevant passages from Chinese have been done by Mr. I. Legaza, from Greek and Latin by W. Metzler, from Tibetan by Mr. B. Mukherjee and from Arabic and Persian by Mr. A. Khallaque. I owe a debt of gratitude to each of them.

The manuscript has been carefully typed out and made ready for press by Mr. S. K. Mukherjee. I have been assisted in various other ways by Messrs. D. N. Das, S. Chowdhury, D P. Gupta, R. Chatterjee, D. Dutta, S. N. Dey, N. Dey and A. Bhattacharyya. The jacket and the map have been drawn by Mr. D. Roy. Mr. C. Sen of the P. B. Press has seen the book through the press. The index has been prepared by Miss. B. Saraswati. I am grateful to each of them for taking personal care in course of the preparation and printing.

In spite of our best efforts some printing mistakes have crept in (see the Corrigenda). For this I crave indulgence of readers.

Calcutta, November, 1916 B. N. Mukherjee

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Α

Like that of many dynasts of yore, the apparent political importance of the Imperial Kushāṇas,¹ alluded to in epigraphic, numismatic and literary sources,² is not matched by detailed information on the history of their territorial expansion. Hence any citation of an unnoticed datum or an attempt to evalute known sources pertaining to Kushāṇa liegemony is always welcome to Orientalists. From this point of view, Sylvain Lévi's paper 'Kaniṣka et Śātavāhana', published posthumously in the Journal Asiatique,³ forms a landmark in the study of Kushāṇa history.

Lévi attempted to demostrate with the help of various data that the Kushāṇa monarch Kanishka (I)⁴ exercised personal authority over a great part of the Deccan.⁵ Though several earlier⁶ and later⁷ scholars expressed or indicated their faith in a similar theory, none of them tried to substantiate it with the seriousness displayed by Lévi. This theory hinges to a large extent on his data and arguments.

As there is no gainsaying the importance of the Imperial Kushānas in oriental history, one should appraise critically Lévi's reasonings and also the arguments of other scholars in favour of this view. For the same reason it is also necessary to scrutinise

the data which have been considered as suggesting the rule of other Kushāṇa sovereigns in the Deccan. We intend to discuss in a seperate volume the question of relationship between Kanishka I's successors and the peninsular India. In the present treatise we shall review the problem concerning the hold of Kanishka I (and his predecessors) over the Deccan. Such a review is a sine qua non for a proper understanding of the trends in the expansion of the Kushāṇa power in India.

В

Before proceeding further we must, however, define the limits of the Deccan. The name 'Deccan' is a corruption of the word Dakshiṇa' or Dakshṇā meaning, inter alia, 'south' as well as 'right'. The expression Dakshiṇā-dis probably denotes a southern region in a section of the Atharva Veda, but its limits are not indicated.

A rough idea of the relative geographical position of Dakshina is provided by the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. It refers to the Dhruvā-Madhyamā-Pratishṭhā-diś, the Prāchī-diś, the Pratīchī-diś, the Dakshiṇā-diś and the Udīchī-diś¹³. Dakshiṇā-diś, mentioned along with the Middle, Eastern, Western and Northern quarters, should denote the Southern region situated apparently to the south of the Middle or Central zone.¹⁴

The Manu-smriti, probably a work of the period between c. 200 B.C. and A.D. 200, 15 indicates the Vindhya Mountain as the southern boundary of the Madhya-deśa. 16 As it has been demonstrated by H. C. Ray

Chaudhuri, the name Vindhya was loosely applied in early Indian sources to the whole chain of hills from Gujarat to the Gaya district, lying (partly) on both sides of the Narmadā.¹⁷ This suggests the latter range of hills or a part of it as the northern limit of the Southern zone.¹⁸

This inference is substantiated by the Nātyaśāstra of Bharata, parts of which may be dated to the early centuries of the Christian Era (or even to an earlier age?).19 It refers to a region called Dakshinatya,20 the name literally meaning '(the area) pertaining or belonging to the south,'21 and states that the style of Dākshinātya or '(the region) pertaining or belonging to the south' was followed in 'countries' between the Southern sea and the Vindhya. 22 Apparently the same, or substantially the same, territory was included by the identical text in Dakshinapatha where it locates the Mahendra (the chain of hills from Ganjam to Tinnevelly), 23 Malaya (the range of hills from the region of the Nilgiris to the Cape Comorin with the exception of the most southerly spurs of the Travancore hills)24, Sahya (the Western Ghats from the Taptī to the Nilgiris),25 Palamanjara and Mekala (the Maikal range, a part of the Central Vindhyas, in M.P.)26

The expression Dakshināpatha literally means 'the way to the South.' This may have been its original meaning or at least one of the earliest connotations. However, in the Nātyašāstra and also in several other sources the term has been used, as it appears from the contexts, to denote the Southern region of India. Probably in that zone

was included at least a part of the way which originally led from somewhere in Northern India to the southernmost settlements in the early days of Aryan expansion in peninsular India, long before Christ.²⁷

The Mahābhārata, compiled between c. 400 B.C. and A.D. 400,28 locates Dakshināpatha apparently to the south of the land of the Vidarbhas and of the Kosalas.29 The Vidarbhas probably occupied the modern Berar region,30 and Kosala should be identified as Southern Kosala comprising probably the area now included in the Sambalpur-Bilaspur-Raipur tract.31 As hills lying across these territories may be considered as associated with the Vindhyan range,32 the information of the Mahābhārata does not contradict the sources suggesting the Vindhya as northern boundary of Dakshināpatha.

The Nāṭyaśāstra may perhaps indicate another definition of its northern limits. As noted above, the Mekala, mentioned in this text as situated in Dakshiṇāpatha, has been identified with the Maikal range, associated with the Central Vindhyas. It is the source of the river Narmadā, also called Mekala-sutā. This river, which flows between the Vindhyan spurs and across the uppermost parts of peninsular India until it falls into the Gulf of Cambay, amay well have been considered simultaneously with, as well as in addition to, the Vindhya as forming the northern limits of the Southern country. Dakshiṇāpatha, mentioned in the Kāmasūtra of Vātsyāyana (composed perhaps sometime between c. 150 B.C. and A.D. 400), as was indeed

described by its commentator, though of a much later period, as lying to the south of the Narmadā.³⁷ The same limit is also indicated by such early mediaeval sources like the Kaira grant and the Kāvyamīmāmsā. The first locates Dakshināpatha between the Setu (i.e. the Adam's bridge)³⁸ and the Narmadā.³⁹ According to the Kāvyamīmāmsā, Dakshināpatha stretched after (i.e. to the south of) Māhishmatī,⁴⁰ identifiable with either Mandhata or Maheshwar on the Narmadā.⁴¹

It should, however, be noted here that the Narmada, which rises in the Maikal range in M.P., does not flow to the east, 42 and we should also take into account that though an inscription of Maukhari Ananta-varman, found in the Nagarjuni hill in the Gaya district, applies the name Vindhya to that hill,43 no early Indian source extends the boundary of Dakshinadeśa or Dakshinapatha to that area. Hence our idea of the north-eastern limits of Dakshinapatha of early Indian sources is not very clear. In fact, Kosala, probably Dakshina Kosala or the modern Raipur-Bilaspur-Sambalpur area, is placed above Dakshinapatha by a sloka of the Mahābhārata,44 and in Dakshināpatha by the Allahabad pillar inscription of Samudragupta (4th century A.D.).45 Similarly, the Kalingas, who occupied, in the early centuries of the Christian Era. parts of coastal Orissa and littoral Andhra Pradesh up to the Godavari,46 were described as a people of Dakshinapatha in one section and as that of the Eastern region in another section of the Natyar sāstra.47 Certain manuscripts of the Matsya Purāna

locate the habitat of the Kalingas in Madhyadeśa or the Middle country and also in Dakshinapatha. 48

The inclusion of Kalinga in Southern region is also indicated by the Nātyasāstra's description of the Mahendra Mountain, i.e. the Eastern Chats from Ganjam to Tinnevelley, as situated in Dakshināpatha.⁴⁹ The dominions of some of the kings of Dakshināpatha, mentioned in the Allahabad pillar inscription,⁵⁰ may be located in the territory once included in Kalinga and now situated in parts of coastal Orissa and littoral Andhra Pradesh.⁵¹

This information on Kalinga's relation with Southern, Central and Eastern zones strongly indicates that at least the regions of coastal peninsular India to the south of Kalinga was always regarded as a Southern territory. As noted above, Kalinga of the early centuries of the Christian Eramay have stretched down to the Godāvarī.

It appears that within the north-eastern boundary of Dakshināpatha of this period lay parts of south-eastern M.P. and inland Orissa as well as coastal Orissa or at least littoral peninsular India to the south of the Godāvarī. Other sections of the northern limits were demarcated by the Vindhya, or/and also perhaps by the Narmadā.

This definition, however, does not necessarily mean that no area above the Vindhyas was ever described as a southern territory. A Jātaka story indeed refers to one Avanti as situated in Dakkhiṇāpatha (i.e. Dakshiṇāpatha). However, this Avanti may have been different from Avanti in Malwa, 3 and may perhaps be identified with

Avanti-Dakkhināpatha (i.e. Avanti-Dakshināpatha), mentioned in another Jātaka⁵⁴ and located probably somewhere in the direction of the south of Avanti of Malwa.⁵⁵

It is also possible that these Jātaka stories allude to an age before Christ when the southernmost Aryan settlements did not expand beyond or much to the south of Avanti (in Malwa), or at least when the northern limits of Dakshināpatha were not yet specified.⁵⁶

We can also suggest that some political reason may have been responsible for the (temporary) extension of the the name of Southern zone (Dakshinā-patha) to the Malwa region, if it included Avanti in question. In fact, epigraphic sources demonstrate that the Sātavāhanas, three of whom have been described in three different inscriptions as lords of Dakshināpatha (Dakhināpatha and Dakhināpatha in Prakrit),⁵⁷ extended their authority to Malwa at least once⁵⁸ or perhaps twice.⁵⁹ Such territorial aggrandisements of Southern powers may have resulted in temporary expansions of the connotation of the name Dakshināpatha.⁶⁰

Testimonies of such a nature thus do not invalidate the above hypothesis about the northern limits of Dakshiṇāpatha in the early centuries of the Christian Era.

Dakshināpatha of the Nātyašāstra extended, as noted above, from the Vindhya to the Dakshinasamudra. The latter expression, meaning the Southern sea, probably denotes the Indian Ocean. This inclusion of the southernmost parts of India in

Dakshināpatha is also directly or indirectly suggested by some early mediaeval sources. 62

However, the Periplous Tes Erythras Thalasses (better known as the Periplus Maris Erythraei), a work of the 1st century A.D.,63 differentiates Dakhinabades, i.e. Dakshinapatha,64 from Limurike,65 the name of which is emended as Dimurike, 66 meaning Dravidaka or the Dravida country,67 Of the localities of Dakhinabades mentioned in the Periplus' narration of India's western sea-board, the two southernmost ones apparently were Khersonesos and Leuke nesos. 68 The Karwar Point in North Kanara represents the Khersonesos,69 and the modern Pigeon island may be identified with Leuke nesos (or White island).70 The Periplus describes Naura and Tyndis as the first market towns of Limurike (i.e. Dimurike)71 or the Dravida country. Naura is identified with modern Cannanore 72 and Tyndis with modern Thoudi near Quilandi in Malabar. 73 These identifications suggest that the southern boundary of Dakhinabades-Dakshinapatha should be placed along a line across inter alia Southern Mysore and the territories to its east. It has been claimed by some scholars that certain epic passages also indicate the exclusion of Far South from Dakshinapatha.74

Thus in the early centuries of the Christian Era, which practically covered the period of the Kushāṇa hegemony, the geographical names Dakshiṇa, Dakshiṇāpatha and Dākshiṇātya espicially denoted the area limited on the north by inter alia the Vindhyas or the Narmadā and on the south by inter alia a line accross modern Mysore and the territories to its east. The

area was apparently bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the east and by the Arabian Sea on the west.⁷⁵

This definition of the term Dakshina finds echo in one of the modern connotations of the word 'Deccan' (<Dakshina). Though geographically the name 'Deccan' often denotes the whole of peninsular India, 76 it is also used to mean only a part of the latter region lying upwards from Mysore 77 and southwards from the Vindhyas 78 or the Narmadā 79 or the line of the Satpura hills. 80

Within a territory so specified are included Southern Gujarat, Mahārāshṭra, parts or whole of Mysore, Andhra Pradesh, parts of Southern M. P., and portions of inland as well as coastal Orissa. Our enquiries in the following chapters will be confined to the activities of the Kushāṇas in this Dakshiṇa-Deccau.

NOTES

- 1. By the term 'Imperial Kushāṇas' we denote the rulers belonging to the groups of Kadphises I and Kanishka I. We have suggested later in this volume and also elsewhere that members of both these groups belonged to the same family. See Appendix I; and B. N. Mukherjee, Studies in Kushāṇa Genealogy and Chronology, chapter II (in the press).
- 2. For references to these sources, see Numismatic Chronicle, 1892, 3rd series, vol. XII, pp. 40-82 and 98-159; Bigram, pp. 118 ff; JA, 1958, vol. CCXLVI, pp. 386 ff and 422 ff; B. N. Puri, India Under the Kushanas, pp. 229 ff; etc.
- 3. JA, 1936, vol. ccxxviii pp. 61 ff.
- 4. We should record here that Levi did not describe the

first Kushāņa king bearing the name Kanishka as Kanishka I. We are doing so here in order to distinguish him from two other Kushāņa rulers of the same name (see Summary of Papers, XXVI International Congress of Orientalists, 1964 p. 171).

- 5. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 61 92.
- 6. E J. Rapson (CCADWK, pp. CV-CVII); D. R. Bhandarkar (IA, 1918, vol. XLVII, p 153); S. Konow (CII, vol. II, pt. I, pp. LXIX-LXX; Journal of Indian History, 1936, vol. XII, pp. 40-45); etc.
- 7. A. Banerjee-Sastri (IHQ, 1937, vol. XIII, pp 211-217); R. Ghirshman (Bėgram, p. 145); D. C. Sircar (AIU, p. 179); F. W. Thomas (NIA, 1944, vol. VII, pp. 95 96); O. Maenchen-Helfen (JAOS, 1945, vol. LXV. p. 80, f. n. 110); J. E. Van Lohuizen-De Leeuw (The "Scythian" Period, p. 384); J. N. Banerjea (Com. His Ind., vol. II. pp. 237 aud 274); etc.
- 8. See the data and theories put forward by E. J. Rapson (OCADWK, pp. cv-cvii and cxii); R. D. Banerji (IA, 1908, vol. xxxvII, p. 60); G. Bühler (Ibid, 1913 vol. xLII, pp. 189-190); D. R. Bhandarkar (Ibid, 1918, vol. xLVII, p. 76); V. A. Smith (EHI, 4th edition, p. 222); K. A. Nilakanta Sastri (JRAS, 1926, p. 661); S. Konow (CII, vol. II, pt. I, pp. xxvI-xxvII and LxvII-Lxx); R. Ghirshman (Bigram, p. 135); G. V. Rao (EHDY, vol. I, p. 128); B. N. Puri (Op. cit., pp. 22-23); etc.
- 9. Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. XI, p. 205.
- 10. M. Monier-Williams, A Sanskrit-English Dictionary (reprint, 1951), pp 465 466.
- 11. A. Macdonell and A. B. Keith observed that the expression Dakshinā padā occurring in the Rig Veda, x, 61, 8, should mean with southward foot (A. Macdonell and A. B. Keith, Vedic Index of Names and Subjects, vol. 1, p. 337). But, in fact, the word dakshinā

is mentioned in the relevant sloka in the phrase saratpadā na dakshinā parāvrin (x, 61, 8), and it does not necessarily mean 'southward'.

- 12. Atharva Veda, XIX, 17, 3.
- 13. Aitareya Brāhmana, VIII, 3, 14.
- 14. See also H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Studies in Indian Antiquities (2nd edition.), p. 59.
- 15. AIU, p. 255.
- 16. Manu-smriti, II, 21.
- 17. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Op. cit, pp, 113-114,
- 18. Madhyadeśa is placed between the Himavat and the Pāripātra in the Saundarananda-kāvya of Aśvaghosha (II, 62), composed in or about the age of Kanishka (I) (M. Winternitz, A History of Indian Literature, vol. I, p 513; AIU, pp. 147 and 265). II. C. Ray Chaudhuri has convincingly argued that the Pāripātia mountain should be identified with the portion of the modern Vindhyas to the west of Bhopal, together with the Aravalli hills (H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Op. cit, pp. 114-115). Such an identification supports our interpretation of the evidence of the Manu-smriti.

According to some Buddhist texts, including the Mahāvagga of the Vinaya Piţaka the river Salalavatī and the town Setakaṇṇika were respectively on the south-eastern and eastern limits of the Majjhimadeśa or the Middle country (Mahāvagga, v, 13, 12). The Divyāvadāna locates the town Sarāvatī to the immediate south of the Middle country and places a river, called Sarāvatī, to the east of that town (Divyāvadāna, I; E. B. Cowell and R. A. Neil (editors), The Divyāvadāna, p. 21). See also JRAS, 1904, pp. 86-87.

19. M. Ramakrishna Kavi (editor), Nātyašāstra of Bharata Muni (Gaekawad's Oriental Series, no. XXXVI, 2nd edition), p. 14; L. Renou and J. Filliozat, L'Inde Classique, vol. II, pp. 118-119; M. Ghosh, The

- Nāţyašāstra, A Treatise on Hindu Dramaturgy and Histrionics ascribed to Bharata Muni, vol I, pp. LXXXI f.
- 20. Nātyaśāstra (Gaekawad's Oriental Series), XIII, 54.
- 21. M. Monier-Williams, Op. cit., p. 475; Pāṇini, Asatā-dhyāyī, iv, 2, 98. It is not certain whether Pāṇini meant 'south' by the word dakshiṇā in the sūtra dakshiṇā paschāt-purastyak (iv, 2, 98).
- 22. Nātyašāstra, (Gaedkawad's Oriental Series), XIII, 41.
- 23. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Op. cit., p. 99.
- 24. Ibid, p. 101; F. E. Pargiter, Mārkanleya Purāna (translation), p. 285, f. n.
- 25. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Op cit., p. 102.
- 26. See also *Ibid.*, p. 118. Dakshiṇāpatha is mentioned together with Surāshṭra in the *Baudhāyana-dhanma-sūtra*, I,I,2,14.
- 27. It may be suggested that southernmost Aryan settlements were once on the Godāvaiī, to which was stretched 'the way to the South' leading from the North. In this connection see the Pārāyaṇa-vagga, 1, 1 and 2 of the Sutta-nipāta; B. C. Law, Geography of Early Buddhism, p. 60; H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Op. cit., pp. 60f; G. P. Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pali Proper Names, vol. 1. p. 1051; etc.
- 28. M. Winteruitz, Op. cit., pp. 454-475.
- 29. Mahābhārata, 111, 61, 23.
- 30. EHDY, p. 24.
- 31. 8I, p. 257, f. n. 1.
- 32. Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. xxvI, pl 41; H. C. Ray Chaudhuri, Op. cit., pp. 60f; etc.
- 33. Ibid.; PHAI, p. 129; S. Konow (editor), Rāja-šekhara's Karpūra-mahjarī, p. 182.
- 34. Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. XXVI, pl. 39 and 41.
- 35. Kāmasūira, 111, 3, 3.
- 36. H. C. Chakladar, Social Life in Ancient India (2nd edition), pp. 1-27.

- 37. Kāmasūtra, II, 5, 28, commentary. (G. D. Shastri (editor), The Kāmasūtra by Vātsyāyana Muni, Kāshi Sanskrit Series, no. 29, 1929, p. 112). It should be noted here that the Kāmasūtra, III, 3, 3, refers to Dakshiṇāpatha, and the Kāmasūtra, II, 5, 28, speaks of the Andhras. The commentator Yaśodhara included this people in Dakshiṇāpatha and explained the latter as the country to the south of the Narmadā.
- 38. IA, 1878, vol. VII, p. 245; N. L. Dey, The Geographical Dictionary of Ancient and Mediaeval India, p. 181.
- 39 IA, 1878, vol. vii, p. 244.
- 40. Kāvyamīmāmsā, ch. xv; C. D. Dalal and R. A. Fastry (editors), Kāvyamīmāmsā of Rājašekhara (Gaekawad's Oriental Series, no 1, 3rd edition), p. 93.
- 41 JRAS, 1910, pp. 443 f; H. D. Sankalia, The Excavations at Maheswar and Navdatoli, 1952-53, pp. 4-15.
- 42. Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. XXVI, pl. 41.
- 43. CII, vol. 111, pp 27-28.
- 44. Mahābhārata, 111, 61, 23.
- 45 CII, vol. III, p. 7.
- 46. J. N Banerjea Volume, p. 223, f. n. 23.
- 47. Nātyašāstra (Gaekawad's Oriental Series), XIII, 40 and 45.
- 48. Matsya Purāṇa (Vangavasi edition), ch. 114, vv. 36 and 47; (Bibliotheca Indica Series, Asiatic Society of Bengal), ch. 113, vv. 36 and 47.
- 49. Nātyašāstra (Gaekawad's Oriental Series), XIII, 89.
- 50. CII, vol. 111, p. 7.
- 51 SI, p. 257, f. n. 1. It may be noted here that the Gandavyūha-sūtra includes Tosala of Amitatosala (nos. 22 and 23) and Kalingavana of Śronāparānta (nos. 26 and 27) in Dakshināpatha (P. L. Vaidya (editor), Gandaryūhasūtra, Mithila Research Institute, Buddhist Text Series, no. 50, pp. 136 and 147). Tosala, as it is wellknown, formed a part of ancient Kalinga. The word

- Kalingavana, cited as the name of a city, literally means 'the forest of Kalinga', and may have denoted a place situated in or near Kalinga.
- 52. V. Fausboll The Jataka, vol. v, p. 133; E B. Cowell, The Jataka, vol. v, p. 71; H. T. Seth. Pāia-sadda-mahānņavo, 2nd edition, Prakrit Text Society, vol. vii, p. 435.
- 53. BG, vol 1, pt. 1, p. 36, f. n. 1; CCADWK, p. XXXIII
- 54. V. Fausboll, Op. cit., vol. III, p. 463; E. B. Cowell, Op. cit, vol. III, p. 277.
- 55. The Sumanjalavilāsinā of Buddhaghosha, probably a work of early 5th century A. D. (M. Winternitz, Op. cit, vol. II, pp. 610-611), describes Dakkhinajanapada as Dakkhināpatho ti pākaṭam Gangāyā dakkhinato pākaṭa janapada (Sumangalavilāsinā. III 1, 23, Pali Text Society edition, vol. I, p. 162). Some scholars are apparently inclined to interpret this passage as suggesting the location of Dakkhināpatha or Dakshināpatha to the immediate (?) south of the Ganges (G. P. Malalasekera, Op. cit., vol. I, p. 1050; B. C. Law, Historical Geography of Ancient India, p. 14). But the passage in question may also indicate that Dakkhināpatha was in the direction of the south from (and not to the immediate south of) the Ganges.

Such an interpretation is supported by a statement of Fa-hsien, who was in India in early 5th century A.D. (J. Legge, A Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms, p. 9, and f. n. 2) and was perhaps a contemporary of Buddhaghosha (M. Winternitz, Op. cit., vol. II, p. 610). Fa-hsien described Dakshina as 200 yojanas away to the south of Kausāmbī (or of a monastery situated 8 yojanas to the east of that locality?) (Fo-Kuo chi, ch. XXXIV and XXXV—according to the divisions adopted by A. Rémusat and J. Legge; J. Legge, Op. cit., p. 96). Kausāmbī, identified with modern Kosam in the

- Allahabad district (S. N. Majumdar-Sastri (editor), Cunningham's Ancient Geography of India, p. 451), was situated not far from the Ganges. So Fa-hsien's Dakshina was not to the immediate south of the Ganges.
- 56. See also above n. 27 and below n. 50.
- 57. ASWI, vol. v, p. 60; EI, vol. vIII, pp. 44 and 60; SI, pp. 189 and 199; H. T. Seth. Op. cit., p. 453.
- 58. EI, vol. vIII, p. 60. .
- 59. Ibid., p. 88.
- 60. We may here draw attention to a section of the Mahā. vastu, a treatise considered to have been composed and enlarged between 3rd or 2nd century B. C. and 4th century A. D. or still later (R. G. Basak, (editor), Mahāvastu Avadāna vol. 1, p. XVI). The relevant portion of this text states that "in the Southern country there was a Brahmin youth, (who was) a son of a wealthy Brahmin of Ujjeni...(Dakshināpathe aparo Brāhmaņakumāro Ujjenīyam Brāhmanamahāśālasya putro..., sec. 30). It is not certain whether this statement indicates the inclusion of Ujjeni, i.e. modern Ujjain of Malwa, in Dakshinapatha. If the passage can be so interpreted, it may allude to an age when the northern boundary of Southern country was yet to be determined, or to a period marking the intrusion of a power of Dakshinapatha (Sātavāhanas ?) into Malwa.
- 61. Nāţyaśāstra (Gaekwad's Oriental Series), XIII, 41.
 The Petavatthu Commentary includes the Damila (i.e. Dravida) country in Dakkhināpatha (i.e. Dakshināpatha) (Petavatthu Commentary, Pali Text Society edition, p. 133; G. P. Malalasekera, Op. cit., vol. 1, p. 1051).
- 62. IA, 1878, vol. VII, p. 245; Kāvyamīnāmsā, ch. xv; C. D. Dalal and R. A. Sastry (editors) Op. oit., p. 93.
- 63. Schoff, Periplus, pp. 7-15. See also Appendix 11.
- 64. Schoff, Periplus, p. 195.
- 65. Periplus, sec. 53.

- 66. Schoff, Periplus, p. 205.
- 67. Ibid.
- 68. Periplus, sec. 53.
- 69. Schoff, Periplus, p. 202.
- 70. Ibid. p. 203.
- 71. Periplus, sec. 53.
- 72. Schoff, Periplus, p. 204.
- 73. V. Kanakasabhai, The Tamils Eighteen Hundred Years Ago (2nd edition), p. 18.
- 74. Rāmā 14 na, 11, 10, 37; Mahābhārata, 11, 31, 16 f; EHDY, p. 2.
- 75. For different opinions on the evolution of the connotation of the terms Dakshināpatha, Dākshinātya, 'Deccan', etc., see EHI (4th edition), p. 439; G. P. Malalasekera, Op. cit., vol. 1, pp. 1050-1051; PHAI, p. 85; D. C. Sircar. The Successors of the Sātavāhanas in the Lower Deccan, p. 1; B. C. Law, Historicat Geography of Ancient India, p. 14; EHDY, pp. 1-2; A. L. Awasthi, Prachīna Bhārata Kā Bhaugalika Svarūpa, pp. 54-57; etc.
- 76. Imperial Gazeetter of India, vol. XI, p. 205; L. Dudley Stamp, India, Pakistan, Coylon and Burma (reprint, 9th edition), p. 342.
- 77. L. Dudley Stamp, Op. cit., p. 342. According to other modern notions, the southern boundary lies along the course of the Krishnā or along that river and the Tungabhadrā (Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. XI, p. 205; EHDY, p. 1).
- 78. Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. XI, p. 205.
- 79. lbid.
- 80. L. Dudley Stamp, Op. cit., p. 342. We may note here that the geological name 'Deccan trap' is applied inter alia to large areas of Cutch, Kathiawad, etc. (D. N. Wadia, Geology of India, 3rd edition, revised in 1961, pp. 292 ff) which are outside the limits of the area denoted by the geographical term 'Deccan'.

CHAPTER II

LÉVI'S THEORY

Α

As noted above, S. Lévi suggested that certain sources should indicate Kanishka(l)'s hold over a large area of the Deccan.

Lévi drew attention to a section (No. 52) in the Periplus. The passage in question, which speaks of market towns after Barygaza, may be translated as follows:

'The local market towns (are) in the following order: Akabarous (sic) (Akabaros?), Ouppara (i.e. Souppara or Sopara)² and Kalliena town, which in the time of elder Saraganes (or Saraganos) (Saraganus) had become a lawful market town. After (that) since (the period when) ·Sandanes himself took possession of it, it was much obstructed. And Greek vessels, which may come to this place by chance, are brought to Barygaza under guard.'8

Lévi took this Sandanes as the master of Barygaza or modern Broach⁴ and of Kalliena or the Kalyan region of littoral Konkan.⁵ He conquered, according to Lévi, the latter area from Saraganes, identifiable with a person called Sātakarņi—a name shared by several Sātavāhana kings.⁶ Lévi wanted to connect the name of Sandanes with that of a region which in Ptolemy's Geographike Huphegesis (better known

as Geography) denoted a great part of Western Deccan, starting from Sopara, a place situated near Bombay and not far from Kalyan. In the Latin versions of the Geography the name in question appears as Ariacha or Arica Sandanorum or Sadanorum. According to Lévi, the form Sandanorum is 'in complete identity' with that of Sandanes of the Periplus. And if this is so, Sandanes was the master of a great part of the Deccan.

Lévi then turned to certain Chinese texts. He drew attention to the term chen-t'an appearing before the name of Chia-ni-cha, i.e. Kanishka (I), oa in the Ta chuang-yen lun ching, which he took to be a Chinese translation of the Sūtrālankāra-šāstra by Aśvaghosha. The translation was done by Kumārajīva in c. A.D. 405. The term chan-t'an accompanied the name of Chi-ni-cha, i.e. Kanishka (I), oa in the Fu fatsang yin yūan chuan and also in two stories occurring in the Tsa pao-tsang ching on the Both these works are Chinese translations done by Chi-chia-yeh and T'an-yao in c. A.D. 472. Seng-chao, a disciple of Kumārajīva, referred in his Wei-mo chie suo shuo ching chu to the 'king of the Yüeh-chih' in place of the chen-t'an of Kumārajīva.

Lévi demonstrated that ohen-t'an and chan-t'an were different spellings of the same word, 14 and took the latter as a royal title of Kanishka (I). The same scholar pointed out, following P. Pelliot, that the Chinese characters which had been used to write chen-t'an had also been employed in some other texts to transcribe the Sanskrit name chandana, meaning sandal. 15 Lévi thought that the word chandana was

also the Indian original of the name Sandanes appearing in the Periplus and that the latter name should be connected with the title chen-t'an/chan-t'an. This would indicate that Sandanes should denote chan-t'an Kanishka.¹⁶

Lévi took the word represented by chan-t'an in Chinese as a title used by the Kushāṇas. He also thought that both the forms chan-t'an and Sandan(es) had $\bar{a}n$ as the final element, which as the genitive-plural in middle Iranian was used to be added to the name of a spot (country, mountain, river, etc.) in order to form an ethnic name. Hence, the base of both the forms would be chandān(a) and the stem of the latter would be chand(a).

Chanda in Prakrit means 'moon', and its corresponding form in Sanskrit is chandra.¹⁷ The latter word probably appeared as chen-t'o before the name of Ki-eul, i.e. Kanishka (I),^{17a} in the preface of the Seng-chia-lo-ch'a so chi ching, a Chinese translation of Sangharaksha's Life of the Buddha, done by Sanghabhūti in c. A.D. 384:¹⁸ According to Lévi, the same chandra epithet of Kanishka (I) is indicated by a verse in the Tibetan version of the Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha.¹⁹

In the title chandra Lévi saw an allusion to the expression Yüch-chih, which literally meant Chandra-vamsa or 'Lunar family'. Hence, Chan-t'an Kanishka stood for Chand(r)ān(a) Kanishka, and denoted Kanishka (I), the monarch of the Yüch-chih. Sandanes of the Periplus should be identified with a Yüch-chih king, especially with Kanishka (I), to whom alone, among the Yüch-chih rulers of the early

Christian centuries, the title was known to have been ascribed.²⁰

According to Lévi, the official annals such as the Hou Han-shu and the Wei-lüch support the idea of the Kushāṇa occupation of South India. The first of the passages concerned, occurring in chapter CXVIII of the former text, may be translated as follows:

'The country of Tung-li has for its capital the city of Sha-ch'i; it is more than 3,000 (li) to the southeast of T'ien-chu; it is a large country. The climate and products of the country are the same as those of T'ien-chu. It has several tens of cities of the first order, (the chiefs of which) call themselves "king(s)". The great Yüeh-chih attacked the kingdom and enslaved it. The men and women are all eight feet tall; but they are cowardly and weak. Mounted on elephants or camels, they go in and come (from) the neighbouring kingdoms; when attacked, they mount upon elephants to fight.'21

The other relevant passage is from the Wei-lüch, and can be translated as follows:

'The country of Chu-li is also called Li-wei-t'o or again P'ei-li-wang; it lies more than 3,000 li to the south-east to T'ien-chu. The country is low, humid and warm. The king has for the capital the city of Sha-ch'i. It (the country) has several tens of other cities; the people are cowardly and weak. The Yueh-chih and the T'ien-chu have attacked and subdued (the country). This territory is several thousands of li from east to west and from north to south. Among the people, the men and women are all eighteen feet tall. The people mount on elephants

and camels to fight. Now (i.e. at present) the Yuehchih have enslaved (them) and they have imposed taxes (upon them), (or, at present the Yueh-chih have made them subject and tributary to themselves)'.²²

Both these passages obviously describe the same country, as Lévi had recognized. After dismissing the reading Chū-li as a scribal error for Tung-li, the Chinese characters for the variants being similar, Lévi entered upon an examination of three forms, Tung-li, Li-wei-t'o and P'ei-li-wang. He took the first two forms as the results of different attempts at transcribing a name difficult to pronounce in Chinese, and thought that Tung-li+Li-wei-t'o=Toù-ri-(ri-)vi-da would indicate one indigenous name denoting South India', Dravida. He pointed out that in Indian and Chinese texts different forms of this name appeared.²³

Lévi added that P'ei li of P'ei li wang might represent the last two syllables of Dravida, viz. vida, or might be connected with the title Vila(vāyakura) (sic) appearing on certain coins from the Kolhapur district. The latter title, Lévi observed, was ascribed to Vāsishthīputra and Gautamīputra.²⁴ The same scholar did not propose any identification of Sha-ch'i, and admitted that it much resembled the Chinese transcription of the name of the northern city of Sāketa. However, he pointed out that due to some error the latter city was placed by Ptolemy in the region of the Western Ghats,²⁵ and inquired into the possibility of a similar mistake resulting in its appearance, in the Chinese source, as the capital of South India.²⁶

On the basis of these observations Lévi concluded that the two passages in question indicated the

Yileh-chih conquest of South India. As he placed the date of the information for the passage in the Hou Han-shu sometime between A.D. 25 and 125 or 170, he thought that the Yileh-chih were masters of South India for a certain period between those dates.²⁷

Lévi thus tried to prove the authority of Sandanes = Chan-t'an = Kanishka (I) over at least a great part of the Deccan, and in order to substantiate his case made an attempt to demonstrate the probability of the conquests of the Yueh-chih in South India.

This elaborate theory is partly supported by R. Ghirshman²⁸ and vigorously upheld by A. Banerji-Sastri.²⁹ The former believes in Lévi's conclusions based on the testimony of Ptolemy, but considers the above extracts from the *Periplus*, the *Hou Han-shu* and the *Wei-lüeh* as indicating the Kushāṇa soverigu V'ima Kadphises' rule over a part of South India.³⁰

A. Banerji-Sastri observes that Kanishka(I) belonged to the Little Yüeh-chih group and that the latter moved from Arachosia and over the Brahui mountain into the Lower Indus region and thence to Surāshṭra and Lāṭa. The sources cited by Lévi suggest Kanishka (I)'s authority over Larike (- Lāṭa) and Ariake, which Banerji-Sastri takes to denote the Surāshṭra-Mālava region. The same scholar believes that Kanishka (I) extended his power to Mathurā and Vārāṇasī from Mālava, and that Chashṭana was left as the Kshatrapa over the territory from Sind to Mālava. He also suggests that king Chandanapāla, whom Tāranātha placed in Aparānta (i.e. North Konkan), 31 was the pāla or 'governor' of Chan-t'an

Kanishka (I). the master of Barygaza and littoral Konkan. Banerji-Sastri seems to be inclined to identify this Chandanapāla with Chashṭana, which, however, was not advocated by Lévi.

В

The array of testimonies in favour of the theory of Kanishka (I)'s hegemony over at least a large territory of North-Western Deccan is apparently impressive.

However, a critical analysis shows some flaws in Lévi's arguments and conclusions. These demand that the stem of Sandanes as well as the original of chen-t'an/chan-t'an was chandan; that the latter was the genitive plural of chanda (chandra = chen-t'o); and that chanda was used as an epithet of Kanishka (I) during his lifetime. But it is difficult to believe that the stem of the Greek nominative singular Sandanes was the Indian word chanda with the Iranian genitive plural inflexion -an. Again, it is not necessary to think that both chen-t'an/chan-t'an and chen-t'o represented the same word, even if the Chinese form in each case was transliteration of some epithet ascribed to Kanishka (I).84 For, these Chinese terms may denote separate words, either having the same meaning, or even having different denotations.

H. W. Bailey has shown that in a manuscript from Tun-huang, now in Paris, the word chadrra, i.e. chandra, occurs before the name of Kanishka (I) both in the Sanskrit and the Khotanese portions of a Khotanese Saka legend of Kaniskha (I)'s stupa and

vihāra. The same scholar has also traced in the Iranian language of Khotan a word chadana meaning 'brilliant', 'shining', 'ornamented', etc., and has pointed out that 'shining' can also be one of the denotations of the expression chandra in Sanskrit. Bailey has again proved that the Khotanese chadana is a modification of an older *tchandana, 'which in turn will be an old Iranian *candana'. An intermediary form between *tchandana and chadana may have been *chandana.

Many of the speakers of the Khotanese language in question must have been familiar with Sanskrit. Chandra in the former may have been a loan word taken from the latter. At least it is certain that chandra of the expression chandra-Kanishka, appearing in the Sanskrit and the Khotanese versions of the same legend, must have the same meaning in both cases, viz. 'shining' or 'moon'. It is quite probable that both Iranian *chandana and Sanskrit chandra were familiar from an early time in the extreme northwest of the Indian sub-continent and Afghanistan, the meeting place of the Iranian and Indian languages and once included at least partly within the Kushana And both Indian chandra and Iranian *chandana may have a common denotation, viz. 'shining'. So the Chinese chen-t'an/chan-t'an and chen-to may be transliterations respectively of these *chandana and chandra. 39 Moreover, both the Chinese forms denote, as has been shown by Lévi, one and the same person, viz. Kanishka (I). Hence the natural, though not certain, inference is to take the common import of these two chinese terms as the one

intended by both.

Thus chen-t'an|chan-t'an < *chandana and chen-t'o < chandra, appearing in connection with Kanishka (I), may mean 'shining', and, unlike the surmise of Lévi, may not have any direct connection with the word Yüzh chih. This hypothesis is further substantiated by the fact that both the Tsa pao-tsang ching 40 and the Fu-fa tsang yin yüan chuan 41 describe Chi-ni-cha or Kanishka (I) simultaneously as chan-t'an and also as 'the king of the Yüch-chih'. It should also be remembered that though one of the imports of Sanskrit chandra is 'moon', Sanskritic sources betray much more familiarity with the expression Tukhāra, 42 alluding to the people denoted by the term Yüzh-chih, 43 than with the latter name meaning literally 'the Lunar family'. 44

No doubt, it may be argued, as indicated above. that it is not necessary to assume that chen-t'o < chandra and chen t'an / chan-t'an < *chandana bear identical connotation. They may have been two different epithets of Kanishka I. It can also be contended that as one of the meanings of chen-t'o < chandra is 'moon', it may contain an allusion to the term Yüeh-chih, literally denoting 'the Lunar even if this line of reasoning is family'. But found valid, there is no ground to connect the Iranian word *chandana, which cannot mean 'moon', with the 'expresion Yüeh chih. The same may be observed about the Iudian world chandana, i.e. 'sandal', if it is claimed that chen-t'an as well as chan t'an were its transliterations. In fact, all such possibilities are virtually ruled out, as already noted above, by the simultaneous

occurrence of the epithets chan-t'an and 'the king of the Yueh-chih' along with the name of Chi-ni-cha or Kanishka (I) in certain Chinese texts.

The questions now awaiting our attention are whether chen-t'an/chan-t'an < *chandana and chen-t'o < chandra were used before the name of Kanishka (I) during his lifetime, and if this was so, whether they were so well known as to denote this king even when they were not accompanied by his name. It is difficult to answer either of the questions in the affirmative. For chan-t'an occurs in the Chinese versions of works, translated, as we have seen, long after any possible date for Kanishka I.^{44a} And again the original of none of them, with the possible exception of one, can be traced.

This exception is the work called the Ta chuangyen lun ching. Lévi, as we have seen, took it to be a translation of the Sūtrālankāra-śāstra of Asyaghosha. But H. Lüders proved, on the evidence of some fragments of a manuscript of the Kalpanāmanditikā of Kumāralāta, that it was this Sanskrit text which was the original of the Chinese version in question.45 In the translation occurs in one passage the phrase chen-t'an Chia-ni-cha46 exactly where in the original appears the expression kula-tilaka Kanishka. 47 Here kula-tilaka is not translated into the Chinese language, but is replaced by chen-t'an. We admit that the change may have been to an extent due to the similarity in meaning - tilaka denoting 'ornament' and ornamented being one of the imports of chen-t'an <*chandana.48</p>
Nevertheless, the fact remains that the work of Kumāralāta, which may have been composed or completed shortly after Kanishka I,40 does not furnish the term chandana as one of his epithets. And we cannot deny the possibility of the same having been the case with other translations. Moreover, the form chen-to occurs, as we have seen, only in the preface to a Chinese translation, made long after any possible date for Kanishka I.

The word chandra, no doubt, appears in the Tibetan version (Rgyal· po· chen· po· ka· ni· ka· la· sprins· pahi• hphrin·yig) of the Mahārāja-Kanika·lekha of Mātricheṭa, a contemporary of king Kanika of the Kuśa race, 50 identifiable with the Kushāṇa monarch Kanishka I. 51 The verse (no. 83) in question, addressed to Kanika (= Kanishka), can be quoted as follows:

'gnod bgyid fi ma ltar rho mi thogs pas/ sa bdag zla ba zla ba bzin du md*od/' 52

The following is a possible translation:

'Since we cannot look upon the hurtful sun,
Act, o moon of (i.e. among) kings, like a moon.'53

Here we have an example of poetic fancy, and the comparison of a celebrity with a celestial luminary is a well-known feature in Indian poetics.⁵⁴ So this verse by itself cannot establish that in Mātricheṭa's time *chandra* was regularly used as an epithet for Kanika = Kanishka (I).⁵⁵

Thus we cannot prove that either *chandana or chandra was a well known epithet of Kanishka I in his own days. And so probably neither of these terms could have denoted, by itself, the Kushana king during his lifetime. It is possible that chen-t'an/chan t'an and

chen-t'o, which appear to be transliterations and not translations of some non-Chinese words, did not-occur in the Sanskrit originals, and that they represented some epithets of Kanishka I current at the time of rendering those works into Chinese.

Can we suggest that some time after Kanishka I's death, when the memory of his great zeal for Buddhism had been spun into the threads of the Buddhist legends, he was associated with the title chandra by Indian or Indianized Buddhists and *chandana by Buddhists under the influence of an Iranian language? Both the titles, which could have the same meaning, might have been used to suggest the brilliance and splendour of Kanishka I, the very ornament of the Yüeh-chih tribe.

We have, no doubt, admitted that it was possible for the epithet chen-t'o < chandra to carry an import different from that of chen-t'an/chan t'an < * chandana. Chen-t'o < chandra may have meant; 'moon'. It may have also contained an allusion to the name Yüeh-chih or 'the Lunar family'. However, the acceptance of such an argument does not necessarily imply that the expression chandra was regularly used by Kanishka I as one of his titles. Its use in this sense, as indicated by the occurrence of its transliteration and not translation in a Chinese translation of a date much later than the age of Kanishka I, may have begun after his death. 57

In any case, it can not be proved that the epithet. chen-t'an/chan-t'an<*chandana should, by itself, denote Kanishka I during the king's lifetime. But Sandanes of the Periplus, as the passage from the text

quoted above shows, appears to have been alive when either the author himsef or his informant collected the information. Hence, if the basis of the name of Sandanes was Chandana (or Chandan), he was known as such, unlike Kanishka I, during his own period. This chronological difficulty must be proved wrong before one can wish to see in Sandanes an epithet for Kanishka I.

We can bring forward more serious objections against Lévi's proposed identification. Sections 41 to 50 of the Periplus are devoted mostly to the description of Barygaza (modern Broach in the Surat district) and some political as well as geographical units connected with it. The next section, 51, refers to articles from Paithana (modern Paithan near Aurangabad)⁵⁹ and Tagara (Ter in the Osmanabad district)60 being brought to Barygaza through tracts difficult to traverse. It is noteworthy that the articles from Paithan and Ter are said here to have been brought to Broach, whereas in normal circumstances it would have been natural for the traders to bring them from these inland towns to Kalyana (Kalliena of the Periplus and modern Kalyan near Bombay) through the Nana Ghat (Pass).61 The reason for this unusual practice seems to be explained by the information given in the next section, 52. It is stated here that during the days of Sandanes, Kalliena was blockaded and the incoming ships were diverted to Barygaza. This crisis in the commerce of Kalyan obliged the traders to take their goods from inner towns of the Deccan to Broach. And it is certain that the ruler of

Barygaza had a hand in this political crisis. There must have been estranged relations between him or his predecessor and the king who held Kalliena when it became blockaded for the first time.

The latter monarch, as it appears from the passage in section 52 of the Periplus mentioned above, was one of the successors of Saraganos or Saraganes. As noted above, the form Saraganes may be philologically connected with the name Sātakarņi, which is known to have been borne by several Satavahana monarchs. The Satavahana dynasty was indeed ruling in Western Deccau, where was Kalyana (Kalliena), from an age earlier than the author of the Periplus. Hence Saraganes = Satakarni was probably a king.62 The ruler of Barygaza, Sātavāhana referred to in section 41, was Manbanos · (Manbanus). The latter, as will be shown later, may have been the same as Nahapana of coins and inscriptions68 (Chapter IV). Nahapāna is known from other sources to have been an enemy of the Sātavāhanas.64 So he may well have been the ruler of Barygaza when Kalyana was blockaded.

This identification seems to be justifiable, since the *Periplus* does not speak of any other master of Barygaza either in section 52 or elsewhere. And as Sandanes and Manbanus = Nahapāna were contemporaries, the dates of the data given in sections 41 and 42 should be placed at approximately the same time. Hence the reference in section 47, in connection with commerce of Barygaza, to 'the very warlike nation of the Bactrians' living above the countries of the Aratii, of the Arachosii, of the Gandaraei and of the

people of Proclais, 6 should also be ascribed to about the same date.

It appears that the Bactrians occupied interalia areas above Proclais or Pushkalāvatī, 66 identified with the modern Charsada region in the Peshawar district. 67 This information seems to confine their Indian possessions to the extreme north-western parts of that sub-continent.

As to be demonstrated later, the territory of these Bactrians was that of the Yileh-chih, or of one their branches, the Kushāṇa.68 If this was so, the Yiteh-chih as well as the Kushāna mouarch Kanishka I, who had a great part of North India under him,69 could not possibly have been ruling at the time when this information of the Periplus was gathered. And since Sandanes was in Kalliena or Kalvan in Western Deccan when this news about the Yiieh-chih or the Kushanas was received, it would be impossible to identify Sandanes with Kanishka I. If Sunandana of a list of the Audhra (= Sātavāhana) kings furnished by the Bhagavata Purana o is a historical figure, he may perhaps be identified with Sandanes.71

Moreover, we cannot support the identification of either Sandanes or Kanishka with the name Sandanorum. For the term Sandanes is a nominative singular and so can mean only a single person; and not more than the same number can be denoted by the name Kanishka itself. On the other hand, the form Sandanorum is a genitive plural, and should allude to more *than one persen called Sandana. It may refer to a people, tribe or family. In India such names

were often used in the plural. 72 It should also be remembered that several variants of the expression Sandano(rum) occur in different manuscripts, and so we cannot be absolutely sure of the form of the original Indian word. Again, of these alternatives-Sandano-(rum) and Sadano(rum) in the Latin versions and Saden(on), Sadan(on), Sadin'on), Adin(on), Adan(on), Aden'on), etc., in the Greek versions 78 - some have sa and some have a as the initial syllable. As such a feature can be noticed in quite a few fairly old manuscripts coming from different sources,74 forms beginning with sa or a may have been used by the author himself or by an earlier scribe or scribes knowing the alternative renderings of the same name. 75 If this was the case, the first letter of the original Indian form of the name in question could be written at least either as sa or as a.

This would have been quite probable in the case of proper names from the Deccan, where we have contemporary examples of initial sa being either changed into ha or dropped altogether. Thus the legends on some Sātavāhana coins from Western India give the name Sātakaņi as Hātakaņi, 77 and the Periplus has Ouppara, (i.e. Opara,), instead of Souppāra (i.e. Sopārā). 76 Even now the people of the Bassein district change the initial sa into ha or drop it. 78 So the name in question may have originally begun with sa, though this was occasionally changed into ha or dropped by the speakers of some dialects of the Deccan.

We should now consider the fact that Ptolemy included within the section concerning Ariacha

Sandanorum (or Ariakes Sadinon, etc.,) many places which, taken together, should have covered a great part of Western Deccan. As he expressly stated that he collected much of his data from traders coming from an emporium, his dentifiable with a port in North-Western Deccan, his knowledge of that region might not have been hopelessly out of date. Hence the powerful royal dynasty of North-Western Deccan, whose name began with sa, should have been ruling in that area well within a century before the date of Ptolemy's information. Such conditions could be fulfilled only by the Sātavāhana royal family.

As there are many variants of the name in question, we cannot definitely determine the Indian expression on which was based the name appearing in Ptolemy's original manuscript. We may, however, offer a suggestion. The term Sātavāhana or its possible variant *Atavahana may be corrupted in inscriptional Prakrit as *Sātāhana or *Ātāhana. Actually, there occurs in a record the form Satahani in place of Sātavāhanī.82 It should also be remembered that we have cases of ta having been changed into da in the legends of the Sātavāhana coins.83 So we can obtain the forms *Sādāhana and *Ādāhana. Again, as Sāta (of Sātakarni) has been sometimes changed into Sāti in the legend of the same series of coins,84 the alternative corrupted forms of *Sātavāhana and *Ātavāhana can be respectively *Sādihana and *Ādihana. If we now remember that in transcriptions of Indian words in Greek and Latin one may notice insertious as well as elisions of sounds, 85 it will be possible to consider the term *Sādāhana as the origin of the

forms Sandano(rum). Sadano(rum) and Sadan(on), and to assume *Sādihana as the base of Sadin(on). Similarly *Ādāhana can be taken as the source of Adan(on), and *Ādihana may be accepted as that of Adin(on) and Aden-(on). Here the syllable ha seems to have been dropped in all cases and a superfluous (gliding?) n has been inserted, as in the case of Sandano (rum). One of these four Indian forms was probably the prototype of the word written by Ptolemy. A knowledgeable scribe or scribes of the early Christian centuries made use of the other Indian variants. 86

Whether such interpretations of the forms Sandano-(rum), Sadin(on), Sadan(on), Adin(on), etc., are acceptable or not, the above discussion demonstrates the futility of connecting any one of them with Kanishka I. We should now try to examine the evidence culled by Lévi from the Chinese annals. A comparison between the two passages quoted by Lévi convinces one that the descriptions of the country given in both of them have come from one common source. The information about the Yileh-chih conquests in India furnished by the Hou Han-shu was derived from Pan Yung's report prepared in c. A.D. 125.87 The latter may well have been consulted by the author of the Wei-lüeh, who wrote his book sometime between A.D. 239 and 265.88 He, however, ascribed to the country in question three names which do not appear in the Hou Han-shu. And as the writer of the latter treatise followed Pan Yung regarding the description of this country, he would have mentioned these three names appearing in the Wei-lüch if they had occurred in the account of Pan Yung. Hence the author of the Wei-luch seems to have consulted some other document in addition to Pan Yung's report. But as the latter is the earliest of the Chinese sources regarding the Yueh-chih victories in India, its information about their conquest of the country in question should be treated as more trustworthy than that given in any other Chinese record.

Thus we believe that Tung-li was the name of the country when it was invaded by the Yüeh-chih. Actually, the author of the Wei-lüch may have used the same name, if we take, following Lévi, Chu-li as a scribal error for Tung-li, the Chinese characters for Tung (東) and Chü (車) being very similar. Lévi's attempt to connect Tung-li with Li-wei-t'o in order to equate the resultant form with Dravida, however, seems to be rather arbitrary. For, the author of the Wei-lüch never indicates that these two are parts of one and the same name. Again, though it may be difficit to express the name Dravida in Chinese, there is no definite reason to believe that these two Chinese forms are different attempts to achieve that hard task. Whether P'eili of the third name P'elli wang stands for vida of Dravida is a moot point, and cannot be proved or disproved. It is, however, very unlikely that P'ei-li has any connection with Vilivāyakura (wrongly spelt by Lévi as Vilavāyakura). For, the latter appellation, known from a group of coins of the Kolhapur region, has nothing to do with either Dravida or with Gautamīputra Sātakarņī and Vāsishthīputra Pulumāvi, the Sātavāhana lords of the Deccan, and denotes rulers belonging to a different family of Western Deccan89.

There are other insuperable difficulties in accept-

ing Lévi's suggestion. He seems never to have realised that even if his identifications of names in Classical sources with those in Chinese were correct, one set of evidence would place the Kushāṇas in Western Deccan, and the other would locate them in Dravida, which generally included the Tamil country or the Far South. At least in the first three centuries of the Christian Era, to which period the Greek, Latin and Chinese sources in question should be attributed, the term *Dravida* did not geographically denote the Western Deccan.

Again, the Wei-lüch locates Tung-li between T'ienchu and P'an-yiich (also known as Han-yiich wang). 92 The latter name, as Pelliot showed convincingly, should denote Vanga kingdom 93 (i.e. part of undivided Bengal).94 If this is so, the term T'ien-chu cannot here signify the whole of India and should be taken in its narrower sense. We have suggested elsewhere that Shen-tu or T'ien-chu of Pan Yung's report incorporated regions on the western side and perhaps also a part of eastern bank of the Lower Indus 98 (see also Appendix III). Consequently, the Tung-li country should be placed somewhere in Northern India, and not in the South. Moreover, the impression that the people of Tung-li were of high stature, even though the exact height given in the Hou Han-shu is evidently an exaggeration and that stated in the Wei-luch a mistake, should point to men of the North rather than to those of the Dravidian South. 96 And finally, camels, used for communication in Tung-li, are never known to have served such purpose in the South.97

Sha-ch'i, the capital of Tung-li itself, can be identified, as Thomas showed, 98 with Sa(sha)geda, i.e. Sāketa, located in an area adjoining Ayodhyā in modern Fyzabad district. Lévi's suggestion that the Chinese, like Ptolemy, may have wrongly transplanted this name into Tung-li of the Deccan cannot be entertained for want of definite proof of such mistakes having been committed in the Hou Han shu's (or Pan Yung's) description of India. Hence, it seems certain that Tung-li included inter alia the region around Sāketa.

Thomas suggested that the form Tung-li is a translation of an Indian name. He thought that Tung should mean 'east', and that li, jjis of Ancient Chinese,99 was frequently used for translating a Sanskrit word meaning 'separation' (bhāga), especially when 'compounded' with vi-(i.e. vibhāga). Thus Tung-li could mean Pūrva-vibhāga (i.e. Prāchya vibhāga or Prāgdesa or 'the eastern region'). 100 But, probably as he wanted to connect Sha-ch'i with Sāketa, the area of which was included in Indian sources within Madhyadesa. Thomas tried to devise a new connotation for the term Pūrva-deśa. He observed that the accounts of Alexander's annalists would indicate that in his time the whole country from Magadha to the border of the Punjab was under the Prasioi, the Prachya people. Thomas was inclined to interpret this evidence as suggesting that the term Purva desa was popularly used to denote this vast territory. 101

The Classical accounts, however, do not necessarily indicate that the country of the Prasioi extended up to the borders of the Punjab. It may only be inferred from their statements that the dominions

of the King or Kings of the Prasioi and the Gangaridai stretched up to the upper courses of the Ganges in Northern U.P.¹⁰² The Prasioi or the Prāchya people in question were under the Nandas of Magadha.103 The empire of the latter may have expanded beyond the natural frontiers of the Prāchya or Eastern division, 104 and this political geography may have been reflected in the Classical accounts. 108 In Indian sources Pūrva-desa never included any territory to the west of Prayaga or Allahabad. 106 And, hence, there is no reason to believe that when the Yileh-chih came to India Tung-li ment Pūrvadesa in the sense understood by Alexander's annalists. Thus we cannot share Thomas' conception of the meaning of Tung of the expression Tung-li. However, li, which means inter alia 'to separate' and also 'separated', 106a may have been used, as he thought, to denote a particular zone, territory or area demarcated from other regions.

We have no definite evidence to determine the Indian original of the Chinese form *Tung*. But we may here cite a passage from Ptolemy's *Geography*, ¹⁰⁷ which may be translated as follows:

'The parts from (i.e. on) the east of the Ganges, (and) along the whole course of the river, (are) occupied in the farthest north by the Ganganoi, through whose (territory) flows the Sarabos, and in whose (territory) are the following towns:

Sapolos: 139° 33° 20′ Heorta: 138° 34°

Storna: 138° 20′ 34° 20′ Roppha: 137° 20′ 33°20′.

The Sarabos, running through the country in question, can be identified with river the Sarabhū or

Sarayū, now a days the joint streams of the Sarju and the Gogra. Sha-ch'i/Sāketa is considered to have been situated very close to Ayodhyā on the latter river. Thus Tung-li may have included a region which Ptolemy placed in the territory of the Ganganoi.

This topographical affinity may, however, be purely accidental. The river Sarayū may have flowed through the land of Tung-li and also of the Gauganoi, and even the information about Tung-li and the Ganganoi may belong to two different periods. But there are some indications of a closer relationship between the name of Tung-li and that of the Ganganoi. In one old manuscript of Ptolemy's Geography occurs the form Tanganoi in place of Ganganoi. 110 *Gangana never appears as a tribal name in any Indian source. On the other hand, Tungana or Tangana is the appellation of a fairly well-known people of ancient India.111 Hence it appears that Tanganoi is the correct form of the name of the people intended in Ptolemy's passage in question. 112

The scribes of some of the early Greek manuscripts of the Geography may have confused tou (τ) with gamma (τ). Moreover, early copyists, whether of the Greek or Latin versions of the Geography, may have been encouraged to substitute the τ for τ by their knowledge of the well-known Indian name Gangā, i.e. the Ganges. Again, this name Tungana a variant of Tangana, may well have been the Indian original of the Chinese Tung, as we have examples of Indian words having been

transliterated in shortened forms in Chinese during the early Christian centuries. 114 And if. as noted above, we can take li as denoting a 'separated' zone, territory, or area, then Tung-li may mean the demarcated area of the Tunganas, 115 just as Ptolemy iudicates the territory of the Ganganoi (Tauganoi) as distinct from other regions of 'the parts' (i.e. the lands) on the east of the Ganges. Unfortunately, none of the towns mentioned by Ptolemy in the section concerned can be definitely identified. Nevertheless, it appears, from the description as well as from the difference between the supposed latitudes and longitudes attributed to these towns, that Ptolemy wanted to ascribe a large territory to this people. 116 This fact also tallies with the Chinese description of the Tung-li country.

Thomas tried to interpret the terms Li-wei-t'o and P'ei-li-wang as translations of some designations or descriptions of the country in question. 117 However, they do not give us any further secure ground for its identification. Nevertheless, in the light of the above discussion we can conclude that Tung-li included the region of Sāketa contignous to modern Ayodhyā and should be placed in North India. 118

In this connection we may refer to the Tibetan work Li-yul-gyi lo-rgyus (The Annals of the Li Country), the statements of which about the kings of the Li country (Khotan)¹¹⁹ are generally reliable. ¹²⁰ According to one such testimony, originally King Kanika, ¹²¹ the King of Guzan¹²², and the Li ruler, King Vijayakīrti, and others led an army into India and captured a city named So-ked... ¹²³

So ked of the above passage certainly stands for King Kanika may also be identified. By the name Kanika, Matricheta probably denoted a Kushana king called Kanishka. 125 Kumaralata referred to the military expedition of Chia-ni-cha of the Chii-sha race, 126 identified with Kushāna that Kanishka I.127 in Eastern India. Thus author indicates Kanishka I's campaigns in India. Epigraphic evidence testifies to his authority over. the Sahet-Mahet area, 128 which lies not far from and to the north-west of the area of ancient Saketa, and so may well have been within the limits of the country of Tung-li. On the other hand, there is no reason to believe that either Kanishka II or III made any military exploit in Northern or Eastern India. These considerations render, as has already been assumed, 129 the identification of Kanika of the Tibetan treatise with king Kanishka I highly probable.

Thus the Yüeh-chih Kanishka I probably annexed Sāketa. And if the Yüeh-chih are not considered to have twice conquered Sāketa, of which there is no evidence, then it must be admitted that the Chinese sources, referring to the Yüeh-chih conquest of Sha-ch'i=Sāketa, should indicate Kanishka I's victory in that region and probably in the areas lying near it. Herein lies the importance of the Chinese passages cited by Lévi. 130

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Thus the upshot of the whole discussion is that Lévi's arguments about Kanishka (I)'s authority over

the Deccau, especially North-Western Deccan, do not bear scrutiny. The same may be said about the additional arguments put forward by A. Bauerji-Sastri in favour of Lévi's theory. Banerji-Sastri does not produce any concrete evidence to support his theory about the migration of Kanishka (I)'s family from Arachosia and via the Lower Indus region to Surashtra, Lata, etc. 131 It is also not absolutely necessary to regard Chashtana as Kanishka I's governor in the Deccan as defined above in Chapter I138 (Chapter IV). It is also difficult to believe that Chandanapala of Aparanta, referred to by Taranatha, 133 was governor of Kanishka I. For that author to have taken the noun Chandnapāla as standing for a proper name and not as denoting the pala or 'governor' 134 of Chandana. 135

NOTES

- 1. JA, 1936, vol, CCXXVIII, pp. 61-92.
- 2. Schoff, Periplus, p. 197.
- 3. Periplus, sec. 52 (Frisk, Periplus, p. 17). Sometimes Ouppara is unnecessarily corrected by editors and translators as Souppara or Suppara (see Frisk, Periplus, p. 17, f. n.; Schoff, Periplus, p. 43; JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII., p. 62); Opārā or Ouppara itself may be a local variant of the name Sopārā or Souppara (see Journal of the Bombay Historical Society, vol. 1, p. 72).

For translations slightly different from that given here, see Boyer, JA, 1897, s. 1x, vol. 1x, p. 138; Schoff, *Periplus*, p. 48; Lévi, JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, 62.

- 4. Schoff, Periplus, p. 180.
- 5. Ibid., p. 197.
- 6. EI, vol. VIII, pp. 71, 73 and 98; ASWI, vol. v, pp. 75 and 78-79; JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 62, 75 and 92; etc. The forms Setagiri (Nasik inscription of the year 19 of Vāsishthīputra Putumāvi) and Sedagiri (Nagarjunakonda epigraph of Vasushena) have been traced to the name Setagiri (Śvetagiri), (ASWI, vol. v, p. 108, f.n. 8; EI, vol. XXXIV, pp. 200 and 203; IHQ, 1962, vol. XXXVIII. p. 237. On the analogy of this evidence we may development Sātakani> *Sātakani> postulate the *Sādakani. *Sādakani could have developed into *Sārakani through the intermediary stage *Sārakani. Sātakani and Sātakani are regular Prakrit forms of Sātakarni (CCADWK, p. 44, pl. VII, no. 176-177). It is also well-known that ka often changes into ga in Prakrit. Hence *Sāragani and *Sāragani (*Sādagani) may have developed from Sātakarņi. In several legends on coins of the Satavahana period one may notice the form Sātakaņa or Sātakana (?) in place of the name Sātakaņi = Sātakani = Sātakarņi (Ibid., pp. 38-39 and 44 f. pl. VII, nos. 175 and El.; A. Canningham, Coins of Ancient India, pl. XII, no. 8; etc). This suggests *Sātakana and Sātakana as alternatives of Sātakani, and consequently indicates *Sāragana and *Sāragana as variants of *Sāragaņi. *Sāragaņa or *Sāragana may have been the stem of the genitive singular from Saraganou, i.e. of Saraganes or Saraganos, occurring in section 52 of the Periplus.
- 7. Schoff, Periplus, p. 197.
- 8. Ptolemy, VII, 1, 6 and 82.
- 9. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 75 and 92. Levi considered the date of the *Periplus* as A. D. 50-100 and placed that of Ptolemy's information about the

- section concerned between A. D. 125 and 160 in one place and only in the first half of the 2nd. century A. D. in another (see *Ibid.*, pp. 68 and 92).
- 9a. In the treatise in question the term Chen-t'an occurs also besides the name Chi-ni-cha (Ibid, 1896, s. IX. vol. vIII, p. 452). From the contents of the stories mentioning the names Chia-ni-cha and Chi-ni-cha (see below nn. 10, 11 and 11a) it appears that they refer to one and the same person. In one story Chi-ni-cha is described as a Yüeh-chih king, and in another Chia-ni-cha is assigned to the Chu-sha, i.e. Kusha, race, which, as is known from other sources, formed a branch of the Yüeh-chih people. The Yüehchih as well as Kushāna Chia-ni-cha/Chi-ni-cha is extolled in these stories for his great zeal for Buddhism (see below nu. 10, 11 and 11a). It is also noteworthy that the character chia (i肌) of Chia-ni-cha indicates that the name transliterated as Chia-ni-cha began with Ka (Karlgren, no.342). These suggest that Chia-ni-cha = Chi ni-cha should be identified with the Yüeh-chih as well as Kushana monarch Kanishka I, the famous patron of Buddhism.
- 10. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 80; Ibid, 1896, s. IX, vol. VIII, p. 445; Nanjio, no. 1182; Taisho Tripiţaka, no. 201, ch. IV, p. 287. The date of the translation should be placed, according to E. Zürcher, in early fifth century A. D. (E. Zürcher. The Yüeh-chih and Kanishka in Chinese sources, PCDK, p. 15). Scholars now generally take this Chinese work as the translation of Kumāralāta's Kalpanāmanditikā (Ibid., p. 15).
- 10a. See above n. 9a.
- 11. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 81; Ibid., 1896, s. IX, vol. VIII, pp. 447 and 476; Nanjio, no. 1340; Taisho Tripitaka, no. 2058, ch. v, p. 315.

- 11a. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 81; Ibid., 1896, s. IX. vol. VIII, pp. 446, 469 and 472; Nanjio, no. 1329; Taisho Tripiţaka. no. 203, ch. VIII, pp. 484f.
- 12. E. Zürcher wants to place the date of the translation in c. A. D. 470 (E. Zürcher, Op. cit., PCDK, p. 15). Lévi doubtfully reconstructed the name of the Indian original of the first of these two translations as Srī Dharmapiţaka.-nidāna-sūtra (JA, 1896, s. 1x, vol. VIII, p. 447). The name of the Indian original of the second Chinese translation was, according to Lévi, Sanyukta-ratnapiṭaka-sūtra (Ibid., 1896, s. 1x, vol. VIII, p. 446).
- 13. JA, 1927, pt. 11, p. 119; Ibid., 1936, vol CCXXVIII, pp. 80 81.
- 14. JA, 1936, vol. ccxxvIII, pp. 79 ff.
- 15. *Ibid*, pp. 80 and 83; *BEFEO*, 1903, vol. 111, p. 253, f. n. 4.
- 16. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 76 and 84.
- 17. Ibid., pp. 85-86; H.D.T. Sheth, Pāia-Sadda Mahāṇṇavo,
 Prakrit Text Society Series, no. 7, 1963, p. 313;
 M. Monier-Williams, A Sanskrit-English Dictionary (1961),
 p. 386.
- 17a. BEFEO, 1903, vol. III p. 254, f.n.; JA, 1936, vol. ccxxvIII, p. 86.
- 18. Nanjio, no. 1352; BEFEO, 1903, vol. III, p. 254, f. n.
- 19. Verse no. 83 in the Rgyal-po-chen-po-ka-ni-ka-la-sprins-pahi-hphrin-yig, the Tibetan version of the Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha. Its author Māṭricheṭa wrote this epistle to Kanika, whom we may identify with Kanishka I (see below n. 51). See also JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 86; IA, 1903, vol. XXXII, pp. 345-360.
- 20. JA, 1936, vol. ccxxviii, p. 87 (see below n. 56).

- 21. This is a new translation. For Lévi's translation, which is not materially different from that of ours, see *Ibid.*, p. 88. See also *TP*, 1907, s. 11, vol, VIII, pp. 194-195; E. Zürcher, *Op. cit.*, *PCDK*, p. 6. For the Chinese text see *IIH8*, ch. 118, p. 10.
- 22. This is a new translation. For Lévi's translation, which is not materially different from that of ours, see JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII p. 88; see also TP, 1905, s. 11, vol VI, p. 551; E. Zürcher, Op. cit., PCDK, p. 8. For the Chinese text consult P'ei Sung-chih's commentary on the San-kuo chih and see the section containing a commentary on the Wei chih, ch. 30, p. 29 (Po-na edition).
 - Lévi also referred to the description of another kingdom, called P'an-yüeh, furnished in the Wei-lüeh. However, he did not draw any inference from it (JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 88-89).
- 23 Ibid., pp. 89-90. Lévi observed in this connection that in Europe two forms of the name for South India gained currency. These are Dravid (Dravida) and Tamul (Tāmila). It would be difficult, the same scholar observed, to find out the 'original' designation (Ibid., p. 89).
- 24. Ibid., p. 90.
- 25. Ptolemy, VII, 1, 71.
- 26. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII. pp. 90-92.
- 27. Ibid., p. 92. Lévi followed E. Chavannes regarding the dating of the information given in the passage in question (TP, 1907, s. 11, vol. VIII, p. 150).
- 28 Bėgram, p. 145.
- 29. IHQ, 1937, vol, XIII, pp. 211-217. See also J. E. Van Lohuizen-De Leeuw, The "Scythian" Period, p. 384; J. N. Banerjea, Com. His. Ind., vol. II, p. 237; and L. Malleret, L'Archéologie du Delta du Mekong,

vol. III—La Culture du Fou Nan, Publications de l' Ecole Française d'Extreme-Orient, vol. XLIII, pp. 362-371; B. N. Puri, India Under the Kushāṇas, pp. 37 and 53. F. W. Thomas was inclined, though not with much confidence, to see in Sandanes a reference to Kanishka (I) (NIA, 1944, vol. VII, pp. 95-96) See also BSOAS, 1949-1951, vol. XIII, p. 927.

- 30 Begram, pp, 135 and f. n. 4 and 145.
- 31. CCADWK, p. XXXII.
- 32. IHQ, 1937, vol. XIII, pp. 211-217.
- 33. The evidence of Tāranātha was also cited by Lévi (JA, 1936. vol, CCXXVIII, p. 85). However, he did not take Chandanapāla as Kanishka (I)'s governor.
- 34. For the reasons suggesting the probability of committing an error in proposing a genitive plural chandan(a) in order to join chandan with with chandra, see BSOAS, 1949-1951, vol. XIII, p. 927, f. n. 1.
- 25, H, W, Bailey, Khotanese Texts, vol. II, pp 201 ff; BSOAS, 1935-1937, vol. VIII, pp. 926-930; H. W. Bailey, Kanishka, PCDK, pp. 1-2. See also B. N. Mukherjee, British Museum Quarterly, 1964, vol. XXVIII, pp. 41-42.
- 36. BSOAS, 1949-1951, vol. XIII pp. 927-929.
- 37. Ibid., p. 928.
- 38, Begram, pp. 118 ff.
- 39. BSOAS, 1949-1951. vol XIII, pp. 929-930.
- 40. Taisho Tripitaka, no. 203, ch. VII, p. 484.
- 41. Ibid., no. 2058, ch. v, p. 315.
- 42. DKA, pp. 45-47; Mahābhārata, II, 47, 26; BSOAS, 1935-37. vol. VIII, p. 888; etc.
- 43. SBAW, 1927, pp. 206f; TP, 1912, s. 11, vol. XIII, p. 392; JA, 1934, vol. CCXXIV, p. 36, JAOS, 1941, vol. LXI, p. 244; B. N. Mukherjee, Studies in Kushāņa Genealogy and Chronology, ch. I, sec. E (in the press).

- 44. The suggested equation of the name of the Rishikas, referred to in the Mahābhārata (II, 24, 25), with that of the Yüeh-chih (J. Vidyalamkara, Bhāratabhūmi Aura Uske Nivāsī, p. 313; Buddha Prakash, India and the Outside World, p. 233; etc.) is not based on any reliable datum. Moreover, the suggested pronunciations of the term Yüch-chih in Archaic and Ancient Chinese (Karlgren, nos. 879 and 1847; Asia Major, 1963, ns, vol. IX, p. 109) do not indicate any connection with the name Rishiha. It may also be added here that the attempt to relate the term Yüch-chih phonetically to Toyara (Tukhāra) (BSOAS, 1935-87, vol. VIII, pp. 885-888) cannot be supported by any unimpeachable evidence.
- 44a. D. C. Sircar, Indian Epigraphy, pp. 246-250; B. N. Mukherjee, Studies in Kushāņa Genealogy and Chronology, ch. IV (in the press); etc.
- 45. H. Lüders, Bruchshstucke der Kalpanāmanditikā des Kumāralāta, pp. 19 and 26.
- 46. Taisho Tripiţaka, no. 201, ch. IV, p. 287.
- 47. H. Lüders, Op. cit., pp. 67 and 153. The relevant portion can be deciphered in the manuscript published by H. Lüders as latila (Ka)ni e (Ibid., table III, no. IIIa, 1.5). Lüders restored the effaced letters and suggested the alternative readings (Ku)latilak(a-Ka)ni(shk)e(na) and (Ku)latilak(e) (Ka)ni(shk)e (Ibid., p. 67). Hence the Kalpanāmanditikā refers to Kula-tilaka Kanishka, i.e. Kula-tilaka Kanishka (The name of King Kanishka I appears in epigraphs as inter alia Kanishka and Kaniskha—CII, vol. II, pt. I, pp. 141 and 145; etc.).
- 48. BSOAS, 1949-51, vol. XIII, pp. 928 and 930.
- 49. According to the *Tsa pao-tsang ching*, Kanishka (Chini-cha) (I) and Aśvaghosha (Ma-ming) were contemporaries (*Taisho Tripitaka*, no. 203, ch. VII, p. 484.)

 Again it appears from the *Ta T'ang Fa Tzu-en-ssu*

San tsang-fa-shih chuan that Asvaghosha and Kumaralabdha - Knınāralāta lived in one and the same age (S. Beal, Life of Hiven Tsiang, p. 199; M. Winternitz, A History of Indian Literature, vol. II, p. 269; T. Watters, On Yuan Chwang's Travels in India, vol. I, p. 245; vol. II, pp. 286-289). Thus Kumāralāta should have been more or less a contemporary of Kanishka I. On the other hand, two stories (nos. 14 and 31) of the Chinese version of the Kapalanāmanditikā of Kumāralāta (and also one narrative in the Sanskrit original) apparently refer to Kanishka (Chia-ni-cha) (I) as a king of a past age (JA, 1896, s. IX, vol. VIII, pp. 444f, nos. 14 and 31; H. Lüders, Op. cit., pp 67 and 153; Winternitz, Op. cit., p. 269). Hence this work seems to have been composed, or at least completed. after the death of that king. These apparently contradictory testimonies can be reconciled only by assuming that the text in question was composed or completed shortly after the end of Kanishka I's rule.

- 50. IA, 1903, vol. xxxII, p. 348.
- 51. The Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha refers King Kanika to the Kusa race (v. 49). The Ta chuang-yen lun ching describes Chia-ni-cha (Kanishka I) as a monarch among the Chu-sha race. These testimonies and also the fact that Kop seems to be the stem of the form Kopano appearing on the Kushāna coins definitely indicate that Kanika of the Mahārāja-Kanika lekha was a Kushāna sovereign.

According to Al Birūni, the vihāra at Purushavar was built by Kanik (E. C. Sachau, Alberuni's India, vol. II, p. 11). The Shah ji-ki Dheri inscription of Kanishka I shows that this Buddhist establishment was created during the reign of Kanishka I (CII, vol. 11, pt. 1, p. 137; British Museum Quarterly, 1964, vol. XXVIII,

pp. 43-45). This should indicate that Kanishka I was known as Kanika.

No doubt, Tāranātha distinguished Kanika, to whom Mātricheţa sent an epistle (Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha), from Kanishka, apparently the same as Kanishka I [Schiefner, Tāranātha (text), pp. 70-72; Schiefner, Tāranātha (translation), pp. 8 and 90-92; IA, 1903, vol. XXXII, p. 348]. But the value of Tāranātha's evidence in question is minimised by his very late date (c. A.D. 1608). Moreover, he appears to contradict known history.

Tāranātha refers to Kanika apparently as the first member of his family to rule in Mālava [Schiefner, Tāranātha (text), p. 70; Schiefner, Tāranātha (translation), p. 89]. This Kanika, to whom Mātricheṭa addressed his famous letter, was, as noted above, a Kushāṇa. And a part of Mālava was incorporated in the Kushāṇa empire during the reign of Kanishka I. At least this is indicated by the facts that the Vaskushāṇa or Vāsishka Kushaṇa's inscription of the year 22, most probably of the Kanishka Era, was discovered at Sanchi in Malwa, and that Kanishka I ruled up to sometime of the year 23 of his era, if not more (PIHC, 1944, p. 135; BSOAS, 1953, vol. xv, p. 977; B. N. Mukherjee, Studies in Kushāṇa Genealogy and Chronology, ch. II, in the press).

Thus Tāranātha seems to be wrong in distinguishing Kanika from Kanishka. The known facts suggest the identity of Kanika of the Mahārāja-Kanika-lekhā with Kanishka I.

52. Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha, v. 83; IA, 1903, vol. xxxII, p. 360.

58. IA, 1903, vol. XXXII, p. 360.

- 54. Mahābhārata, vi, 59, 47 and 107, 76; vii, 33, 18; Raghuvamša, vi, 22. Verse no. 49 of the Mahārāja-Kanikalekha itself describes the ancestors of Kanika as sons of the Ārya stock' (IA, 1903, vol. xxvii, p. 356). Hence Thomas' query can Kanika have been named Chandra-Kanika' (Ibid., p. 149, fn. 11) cannot be answered in the affirmative. Thomas himself also observed that the relevant portion of verse no. 83 'must to students of Indian poetry suggest a play upon words' (Ibid., p. 349). See also JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 85-87.
- 55. It may be noted here that Dr. R. C. Majumdar once suggested that king Chandra of the Meharauli inscription should be identified with Chandra Kanishka (I) (JRASBL, 1943, s. III, vol. IX, pp. 179-183). But the palaeographic evidence is very much against the ascription of the epigraph to the age of Kanishka I. Again, Chandra of the Meharauli inscription appears to have Vaishnava leanings (SI, p. 277), and so such an identification implies Vaishnava affinities also on the part of Kanishka I. Of this, however, we have no evidence.
- 56. See also BSOAS, 1949-51, vol. XIII, pp 922-930.

Here we may refer to the evidence of an inscription occurring in an impression of a seal on black wax, found at Sahri Bahlol in the Mardan region of the Peshawar district. It is interesting to note that the Sahri Bahlol inscription refers to a Kushāṇa Kaneshko or Kanishka, and not, as A. D. H. Bivar has suggested, to a son of Kanishka (NC, 1955, pp. 203-205; pl. xv. no. 1; Summary of Papers. xxvi International Congress of Orientalists, 1964, p. 171). It describes him as maho, which may remind one of the name Mao (Māh) appearing on several Kushāṇa coins (JA, 1958, vol. CCLxvi, p. 424) and signifying 'moon' or rather the 'Moon God'. The literal imports of the Middle Iranian term m'h (māh) are 'moon' and 'month'. The Sanskrit word for moon is

chandra. If maho māh+o) really denotes moon, chandra may have been an epithet of this Kanishka. And since, as pointed out by J. Charpentier (ZDMG, 1917, vol. LXI. p. 374, fn. 4) and S. Lévi (JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 87), the expression Yüch chih literally means the 'lunar family' (see also J. C. Quo, Op. cit., pp. 20 and 224), the phrase maho Kaneshko may associate Kushana Kanishka with the Yüch-chih race, to which all Kushāna kings belonged.

W. B. Henning apparently thinks that this Kanishka should be identified with Kanishka I (ZDMG, 1965, vol. cxv, pp. 85-87). There are, however, great difficulties in accepting this identification. The form of the letter used to denote the sound h in maho is more developed than that of the same letter appearing on the coins of Huvishka (NC, 1892, pl. xIII, no. 8), who certainly reigned after Kanishka I.

The seal bears the figure of a male facing right and struggling with a rearing horse (Ibid., 1955, pl. xv. no. 1). This device has been identified as representing Heracles combating with the horse of Diomedes (Ibid.. p. 203). This type occurs on some coins of Heraclea Pontica of the time of Caracalla (A.D. 198-217) and of Gallienus (A.D. 253-268). A comparison between this type appearing on these Heraclea Pontica coins and that on our seal reveals a strong similarity between them. And since Roman coin-types are known to have influenced the Kushana mint masters, and not vice versa, there is a likelihood of the relevant type of Caracalla or Gallienus having been the prototype of the device on the seal concerned. This means that it must be dated in or after A.D. 198. Kanishka I could not possibly have ruled in so late a period as A.D. 198 (see chapter IV; see also B. N. Mukherjee,

Studies in Kushāņa Genealogy and Chronology, ch. III, sec. D and E, in the press).

It should also be noted that the from of the letter zeta is palaeographically more developed than that of the same letter occurring on the coins of Vāsudeva I (NC, 1892, pl. xiv, nos. A, B, C, etc). This evidence suggests that our seal schould be dated after the reign of Vāsudeva I, whose last known date is the year 98 of the Kanishka Era.

Kanishka, referred to in the Sahri Bahlol inscription, thus cannot be identified either with Kanishka I (years 2-23 of the Kanishka Era) or with Kanishka of the Ara epigraph of the year 41 (of the same reckoning). Hence Kanishka of the seal should be called Kanishka III.

It appears that the term $maho = mao \pmod{noon} = chandra$ was an epithet of Kanishka III. This, however, does not prove that the same title was used by Kanishka I, another Kushāṇa monarch. Moreover, the word chent'o < chandra, appearing before the name of Kanishka I in a Chinese treatise, probably denotes 'shining', and not 'moon'.

It may also be noted here that Léwi was wrong in observing that Kanishka I was the only Yüch-chih king of the early Christian centuries with whom the title chandra was associated. The same title, though probably bearing a different connotation, seems to have been used also by Kanishka III. We must, however, concede that the Sahri Bahlol inscription was noticed long after the death of Lévi.

57. Kanishka III may have used the title chandra (see above n. 56). The word Sando occurs as an epithet (?) in an early mediaeval Bactrian inscription found in the Tochi agency in West Pakistan. The word has been

translated as 'brilliant' (Ancient Pakistan, 1964, vol. I, pp. 132-133). We do not know whether Sando can be related to chandra. We may, however, note that one of the meanings of chandra is 'shining', which is an expression of brilliance. No doubt, in the Greek script, employed in writing Bactrian language, there was no letter representing the sound cha. Nevertheless, there are instances of Indian cha having been represented by Greek sigma at least in Greek texts (c.f. Chandraguptah) Sandrokottos).

of Gandhāra called Chan-t'an Hu-li was named after the younger brother of a king of that region, who descended from Ki-ni-cha (JA, 1895, pt. 11, pp. 341-384; 1936, vol. ccxxvIII, p. 83). In the same century a king of Hu-mi or Wakhan was called Lo Chen-t'an (Lo-lu-i-t'o Chen-t'an?) The title Hu Chen-t'an (Chent'an of Hu-mi?) was ascribed to his younger brother (or cousin) (T'ang-shu, ch. ccxxi; JA, 1936, vol. ccxxvIII, p. 84). Thus Chinese sources suggest the use of the title Chan-t'an/Chen-t'an by members of the royal families of Gandhāra and Wakhan (both of which might once have been under the Kushāṇas) in a century long after the death of Kanishka I.

It may be of interest to note that the same title chant'an was used also by the King of Fu-nan probably in the 4th century A.D. (For references to sources see BEFEO, 1903, vol. III, pp. 252-269; JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 81-82. In this connection see also, India Antiqua, pp. 171f).

- 59. Schoff, Periplus. p. 195.
- 60. JRAS, 1901, pp. 537-552.
- 61, See Ibid., 1946, p. 167.
- 62. See above n. 6

- See also JA, 1897, s. IX, vol. X, p. 137; JRAS, 1907,
 p. 1043, f. n. 2; JA, 1961, vol. ccxLIX, pp. 456-457.
- 64. CCADWK, pp. XLVII f. and LXXXIX.
- 65 For locations of the territories of these peoples, see Schoff, *Periplus*, pp. 183-184.
- 66. Ibid.; S. N. Majumdar-Sastri (editor), Cunnin ham's Ancient Geography of India, pp. 56-58.
- 67. M. Wheeler, Charsada, pp. 1f; see also above n. 66. It is interesting to note that the author of the Periplus separates Proclais (Pushkalāvatī) from the region of the Gandaraei (Gandhāris), though Indian tradition includes the former within the latter (Vāyu Purāņī, ch. 88, 189-90; Rāmāyaṇa, VII, 114, 11; for an account of the traditional boundaries of Gandhāra, see PHAI, pp 59f and 146f). Probably they were parts of different political units at the time of the collecting of the information by the author of the Periplus or by the original informant.
- 68. See also W. W. Tarn, The Greeks in Bactria and India (2nd edition), p. 148, f.n. 4
- 69 PHAI, p. 473.
- 70. DKA, p. 41, n. 83; CCADWK, p LXVII.
- 71. PHAI, p. 483 and f. n. 2.

McCrindle assumed Sadineis (sic) as the name of a dynasty and wanted to connect it with Sandanes of the Periplus. Earlier, Lassen had noted that Sadanes should correspond to sādhana meaning 'completion' or 'a perfecter' and also 'an agent' or 'a representative', See McCrindle, Ptolemy, pp. 39-40.

- 72. Mārkandeya Purānz (Vangavasi Edition), ch. 57, 6 f; Vāyu Purānz (Anandasrama edition), ch. 46, 115f; Brihat Samhitā, ch. 14, 2 f; DKA, pp. 45 f; etc.
- 73. Renou, Ptolemy, p. 3, f.u.

- 74. Three of such manuscripts belong to the 14th century and three others to the 15th century. And as the form Sandanorum cannot be found in manuscripts ascribable to any age prior to the 14th century A.D., our suggestion about the change of form in an early period cannot be lightly brushed aside (see Ibid., pp. VI-VIII, and 6, f.n.).
- 75 We may note here that in different versions of the Bible also we find different forms of one and the same name. Thus Ophir of the Hebrew Bible is written as Sophera in the Septuagint version.
- 76. CCADWK, p. 45. Though the recorded provenances of the silver coins in question are in Western India, a clay mould of their reverse type with the Brāhmī legend Iruhaṇasa...putasa hiru Pulumāvisa has been discovered during excavations at Nagarjunakonda of Andhra Pradesh (IA, AR, 1956.57, pl. LXI, no. B). The inscription apparently refers to the Sātavāhana king Vāsishṭhīputra Pulumāvi. Since it is the only known mould of the Sātavāhana species in question, this discovery probably locates at Nagarjunakonda in Eastern Deccan one of the mints for issuing these coins.
- 77. Periplus, sec. 52.
- 78. Journal of the Bombay Historical Society, vol. 1, p. 72.
- 79. Ptolemy, vII, 1, 6 and 82; McCrindle, Ptolemy, pp. 39-45 and 176-179; Our Heritage, 1963, vol. IX, p. 64.
- 80. Ptolemy, I, 16, 3.
- 81. McCrindle, Ptolemy, pp. 42-43.
- 82. Hirahadagalli inscription of the early Pallava ruler Sivsakandavarman, 1.27 (BI, vol. 1, p. 6).
- 83. M. Rama Rao, List of Published Satavahana Coins, NNM. no. 6, p. 1,
- 84. Ibid., pp. 2-3.

85. Baleokouros of Ptolemy's Geography (VII, 1, 82) evidently stands for Vilivāyakura of coins (CCADWK, pp. 13f; R. G. Bhandarkar, Early History of the Deccan, p. 37; Our Heritage, 1963. vol XI, p. 67; NC, 1963, pp. 278-279). Here the syllable va has been dropped.

Palimbothra, which appears in different classical texts as the name of an Indian town (Arrian, Indike, III, 4; Pliny, Naturalis Historia, VI, 91, 11; Ptolemy, VII, 1,73; etc.), has been convincingly connected with the word Pāţaliputra, denoting in ancient times the Patna region (McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 169). Here the syllable ţa is elided and the sound m is inserted.

86. Ptolemy placesbaithano (i e. Paithan), the capital of Ptolemaios, in Ariake (VII. 1, 82). This Ptolemaios can be identified with Pulumāvi, a name shared by a few monarchs of the Sātavāhana dynasty. Thus our suggestion for associating Ariakes Sadinon with the Sātavāhanas gains further strength.

The word Ariakes or Ariacha or Arica indicates the Indian orginal as Ariaka, Aricha, or Arica. All these forms may be philologically connected with Aryaka $(\bar{A}ryaka > \bar{A}riyaka > \bar{A}riaka > \bar{A}rika > Arikha - Aricha)$. but never with, as already suggested, Aparantika [Prakrit Abarātikā or Avarāikā (IA, 1878, vol. VII, pp. 259)]. (In this connection see also JIH, 1965, vol. XLIII. pp. 693-698; 1962, vol. xL, p. 44; etc.). The same country is probably alluded to by the name Aryaka [i.e. (the land) belonging to the Aryas] occurring in a list of countries and peoples in the Brihat Samhitā (ch. XIV. 15; see also BG, vol. I, pt. I, p. 540; and McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 39). This region may also perhaps have been implicitly assigned to the Aryas in certain passages of aucient Tamil literature. P.T. Srinibas lyengar, History of the Tamils From the Earliest Times to 600 A.D., p. 318.

It may be noted that the word Arabikes, occurring

- in sec. 41 of the *Periplus*, was emended by Stuck as Ariakes (Frisk, Periplus, p. 14, f. n. 2). The Indian original of this emended term has been variously taken to be Lāṭika (Schoff, Periplus, pp. 174-175), or Aparāntikā (IA, 1878, vol. VII, p. 259), or Āryaka (C.Lassen, Indische Alterthümskunde, vol III. p.178, f.n. 1; JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp 73-74; Śakas in India, p. 37). However, since the Heidelberg University manuscript of the Periplus clearly indicates the reading of the intended name to be Arabikes, we do not know whether it would be prudent enough to accept the emendment and so any of the suggested Indian bases.
- 87. TP, 1907, s. 11, vol. VIII, p. 168; HHS, ch. 118; B. N. Mukherjee, The Lower Indus Country, A. D. 1-150, book I, ch. II (in the press).
- 88. TP, 1905, s. 11, vol. vi, pp. 519-520.
- 89. AIU, p. 211; JNSI, vol. xvII, pt. 1, pp. 58 ff; Our Heritage, 1963, vol. XI, p. 67.
- 90 El, vol. xx, p. 85; V. Kanakasabhai, The Tamils Eighteen Hundred Years Ago (2nd edition), pp. 10f.
- 91. Lymirike of the Periplus (sec. 53 and f) and Ftolemy's Geography (VII, I, 8), which has been identified with Dravida-desa of Indian sources (Schoff, Periplus, p. 205; McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 49), never included Western Deccan within its limits (R. Caldwell, Comparative Grammar of Dravidian or South-Indian Family of Languages (3rd edn.), pp. 10-12). It should, however, be noted that a section of the Mahābhārata, which locates Dravida immediately to the south of the Godāvarī flowing apparently through the Eastern Deccan (III, 118, 3-4), may suggest that occasionally at least a part of the latter zone was included within the northern limits of Dravida-desa. In this connection see also IA, 1914 vol. XLIII, p 64.

- 92. See the section containing the commentary on the Wei-chih (ch. 39 p 29b) in the Po-na edition of the San-kuo chih.
- 93. BEFEO, 1906, vol. vr, pp 371-373, f. n. 2.
- 94. R. C. Majumdar (editor), History of Bengal, vol. 1, pp. 15-16
- 95. B. N. Mukherjee, The Lower Indus Country, c. A.D. 1-150, book I, ch. II (in the press). See also CII, vol. II, pt. I, p. IXVII.
- 96. NIA, 1944, vol. vii, p. 90
- 97. Ibid.
- 98. Ibid.
- 99. See Karlgren, no. 533.
- 100. NIA, 1944, vol. VII, p. 91
- 101. Ibid, pp 91-92.
- 102. Quintus Curtius Rusus Historiarum Alexandri Magni Macedonis, IX, 2; Diodorus Siculus, Bibliothekes Historikes, XVII, 93; etc.; The Imperial Gazetteer of India, vol. XXVI, pls. 11, 39 and 34. Justin included the Praesidae and the Gangaridae in the list of peoples conquered by Alexander (Epitome, XII, 8). If they are to be identified respectively with the Prasii and the Gangaridae of other texts, Justin may be considered to have committed an error.
- 103. See above n. 102. See also PHAI, pp. 232-233.
- 104. Ibid., pp. 233f; K. A. Nilakanta Sastri (editor), The Age of the Nandas and Mauryas, pp. 11-20; JRAS, 1904, pp. 83-93.

According to the Manusamhitā (II, 21), Madhyadeśa is to the west of Prayāga, i.e. Allahabad in U.P. So Prayāga was on the western boundary of the Eastern Division, lying to the east of Madhyadeśa (see JRAS,

- 1904, pp. 83-93). Of all the known limits of the Eastern Country, Prayaga was the westernmost.
- 105. See above n. 102.
- 106. JRAS, 1904, pp. 83-94. See also above n. 104.
- 106a. J. C. Quo, Concise Chinese-English Diction rry, p. 116; Karlgren, no. 533.
- 107. Ptolemy, VII, 2, 13.
- 108. McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 99.
- 109 T. W. Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 39
- 110. Renou, Ptolemy, pp. vi and 51, f. n.
- 111. For literary references to the Tunganas or Tanganas see JUPHS, vol. XVII, p. 35. The name of the people in question is spelt as Tungana (Mārkandeya Purāna, BI edition, LVII, 41), Tungana (Ibid, BI translation, LVII, 41; p. 323) Tangana (Mahābhārata, III, 141, 24-25) and Tankana (Rāmāyana, IV. 42, 11), etc.
- 112. Long ago L. Vivien de Saint Martin proposed to identify the Ganganoi with the Tanganas (Étude sur la geographie grecque et latin de l'Inde, pp. 327-378). However, he did not furnish any reason for such an identification.
- 113. Quintus Curtius Rufus, Op. cit., IX, 2; Strabo, XV, 1, 35; etc.
- 114. In the Wei-lüch the expression Sha-lu stands for Sāriputta (TP, 1905, s. II, vol. VI, p. 546 and f. n. 2). In the
 Hou Han-shu the character Fo represents the Buddha
 (Ibid, 1907, s.II. vol. VIII, p. 194). Since the final vowel of
 a word is often dropped in the popular North Indian
 pronunciation, Tungana may have been pronounced as
 Tung(+) gan(+)a and also as Tung(+)gan. Tung(+)gan
 may have been represented in the Chinese as Tung.
- 115. Country of Tung-li should mean the country of Tungana-vibhaga or Tungana-desa, almost like the pre-

- sent 'state of Uttar Pradesh (the Northern Province)' in modern India.
- 116. Though Ptolemy's conception of the positions of latitudes and longitudes are basically wrong, they may betray his own idea about relative distances between places (McCrindle, *Ptolemy*, pp 3f).
- 117. NIA, 1944, vol. VII, p. 92.
- 118 This conclusion rejects J Kennedy's suggestion that Tung-li may denote Magadha (JRAS, 1912, pp. 679 678).
- 119. F W. Thomas, Tibet in Literary Texts and Documents Concerning Chinese Turkestan pt. 1, p 77. f.u. 2
- 120 Ibid., pt. I, pp 74 75
- 121. The text has Ka-nikahi-rgyal po, which has been universally taken to stand for Ka-ni ka-rgyal po i.e. 'Kanika, the king' (lbid, p. 119, f.n. 2; W. W. Rockhill, The Life of the Buddha, p. 240, f.n. 2; etc.).
- 122. An may be placed in the Guchen area. See F. W. Thomas: Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents Chinese Turkestan, pt I, p. 119, f, p pt II, pp. 282 f.
- 123. Bstan hgyur, vol XCIV in the Mdo (sūtra) section, folio no 436b, IN W. Thomas, Tibetan Literary Texts and Documents Concerning Chinese Turkestan pt. 1, p. 119.
- 124. See above n. 123.
- 125. See above n 51.
- 126 Taisho Tripitaka, no. 201, ch iv p. 287.
- 127. JA, 1896 s. IX, vol. VIII, p. 457.
- 128. H. Lüders, Lisc of Brahmi Inscriptions, nos 918, 919, 925, and 327; EI, vol. VIII pp. 108f; EI, vol. IX, p. 291.
- 129. W. W. Rockhill, Op. cit., p 240 f.u. 2
- 130. F. W. Thomas identified Sha-ch'i with Saketa and.

Tung-li with Madhyadeśa. He thought that the Buddhist accounts referred to Kanishka (I)'s conquest of Madhyadeśa with its capitals Sāketa and Pāṭaliputra, and found in the testimonies of Kanishka (I)'s Sahet-Mahet records a proof of his authority over the whole of that country. Hence Thomas concluded that the Chinese passages in question allude to the annexation of Madhyadeśa by Kanishka (I) (NIA, vol. VII, pp. 90 and 92). However, we have seen that Tung-li had not necessarily the same limits as those of Madhyadeśa, though the former might have been wholly or partly included within the latter territory. Hence Thomas' conclusion is not acceptable in its entirely.

- 131. IHQ, 1937, vol. XIII, pp. 211-217.
- 132. Kanishka I's known years range from 2 to 23, corresponding probably to A.D. 79-80 and 100-101 respectively

Chapter IV). Even if the year 11, by which date Chashana seems to have begun his rule, is attributed to the era of A.D. 78, it is not imperative to assume that he controlled the Deccan in that year, corresponding to 88 89 (Chapter IV).

- 133. Schiefner, Tāranātha (text), p. 2; Schiefner, Tāra nātha (translation), p. 2
- 134. Since pāl means, inter alia, 'to govern' (M. Monier-Williams, A Sanskrit-English Dictionary, 1951, p. 622), pāla may denote 'governor'.
- 135. See above n. 133.

CHAPTER III

THE KANISHKA-SĀTAVĀHANA LEGEND

We may now turn our attention to a legend cited by Lévi, but not utilised by him to substantiate his theory of Kanishka (I)'s rule in the Deccan. It occurs in a Chinese treatise called Yu yang tsa tsu.

The Yu yang tsa tsu² was composed by Tuan Ch'eng-che in c. A.D. 860.³ This book, written in 20 chapters, contains inter alia important notices on foreign countries.

In chapter XI of this work occurs a story about Kanishka. H. Huber was of the opinion that the author borrowed this story from the accounts of the embassies of Wang Hsuan-tz'u to India. In favour of such an observation Huber cited the instance of the author's reference in chapter VII to an Indian scholar, in the company of the King of Magadha, brought to the capital of China by Wang Hsuan-tz'u. P. Pelliot admitted the possibility of the author's indebtedness to Wang Hsuan-tz'u, but he was sceptical about any connection between the story of Kanishka and the Indian savant referred to by Huber. Lévi also thought that our author's story was taken from the accounts of Wang Hsuan-tz'u.

While it is impossible to be absolutely certain

on this issue, as neither the whole of Wang Hsilan tz'u's writings has been discovered, nor do the extant fragments preserve the story concerned, there are certain indications which make the theory of indebtedness highly probable. It should be remembered that this story is not known to occurin any Chinese treatise ascribable to a period earlier than that of Wang Hsilan-tz'u. On the other hand, are definite testimonies, as will be shown presently, to the currency of similar stories in India only after the period of Wang Hslian-tz'u. Moreover, he is known to have narrated some other stories about a king called Kanishka.8 Finally, there is an indication, as Huber pointed out, that at least on one occasion Tuan Ch'eng-che used the information supplied by Wang Hsiian-tz'u. Hence it is probable that the story with which we are concerned was brought by Wang Hsiian-tz'u from India, and was later incorporated by Tuan Ch'eng-che in his Yu yang tsa tsu. And as Wang Hsiian-tz'u visited India on different occasions about the middle of the 7th ceutury A.D., the story in question was already current at that time.

The story itself is as follows: 10

'Formerly there reigned in Gandhara (Kan-to) a worthy and shrewd king; his name was Kanishka.¹¹ He led his armies against all nations; none resisted him. Once, during his campaign in India (T'ien-chu) (literally five Indies¹²), some one presented him two every fine fabrics. He kept one (for himself), and bestowed the other on his queen. The queen clothed herself (with it), and came forward before the king.

Now on the fabric, just over the breast of the queen, appeared the imprint of a hand in saffron (colour). At the sight of this the king grew angry, and demanded of the queen 'what does the robe, put on by you, signify, and what does the mark of a hand convey?' The Queen said to him 'this is the same cloth which the king has given me.' Furious, the king demanded an explanation from his treasurer, who replied to him 'a piece of this stuff always carries this mark. Your bondsman is not here for nothing.' And the king ordered the merchant, (who) had sold (the cloth to the buyer who had presented it to the king), to appear (before him); the latter (i. e. the merchant) said, 'in South India reigns king Sātavāhana (So-t'o-p'o-hen); and here (is one) who can fulfil his vow, made previously; every year he accumulates, one upon the other, fine fabrics brought to him as taxes; he imprints his hands, wetted in saffron, on these stuffs, and this imprint penetrates through all the pieces heaped up in thousands and tens of thousands. In whatever way a man may put on one of these cloths, the mark of the hand willappear on his back; and (it appears) over the breast if it is (worn by) a female.'

The king ordered the personnel of his retinue to put on (the pieces) themselves, and it (was) as the merchant had said. Sriking on his sword, the king cried out, 'I (won't) sleep or (take) rest before I cut off the hands and feet of King Satavahana'. And, he despatched a messenger to South India to demand the hands and feet of king (Satavahana).

On the arrival of the messenger, king-

Satavahana and his minister spoke to him falsely that 'we have a good king who has the name Satavahana; but this is not an actual king; nevertheless, the power and the supreme authority are in the hands of us, the ministers.'

On (hearing) that, the king (i.e. kanishka) ordered his cavalry and elephants to go down to the South, against the kingdom of (king) Sātavāhana.

The inhabitants concealed king (Sātavāhana) in an underground cave; and then cast in gold (a statue of) a man which went (i.e. was taken) to meet the invader. But the king (i.e. Kanishka) recognised the forgery, and, relying on the strength of his previous merits, he cut off the arms and the legs of the man (i.e. the statue) of gold. At the same moment fell off the two arms and (the two) legs of king Sātavāhana, hidden in the cave.

Similar stories about rivalry having been caused by the appearance of a certain imprint on merchandise are also preserved in some early mediaeval texts. To this category should belong the well-known Persian work called the Mujmmalu-t Tawārīkh. 13 The chapter in which the story in question occurs seems to contain a chronicle of the Sind region. It originally belonged to a book written in the 'Hinduwani language' (Sanskrit?). The latter was translated into Arabic and Persian. The translation into the latter language was done in 417 A.H., i.e. A.D. 1026. 14 Though the date of the original Indian text is not known, 15 there is no doubt that the story concerned originated sometime before the date of its translation into Persian, i.e. A.D. 1026.

This story speaks of a king called Hal, i.e. Hāla. It appears from the context that Sind was included in his dominions. 16 His country exported fine cloths stamped with the impression of one of his feet. The king of Kashmir (i.e., Kāśmira) became furious on seeing the impression on the garment worn by his queen. On hearing from the merchant. who had sold the cloth, that the stamp was an impression of one of Hal's (i.e. Hala's) feet, he (the king of Kashmīr) swore to cut off that limb of Hāl. So the king of Kashmir marched against king Hal. The latter was alarmed. He played a trick by placing an elephant in front of the battle field. When the soldiers of the king of Kashmir advanced, flames burst out from it and burnt many of them. So the king of Kashmir was compelled to sue for peace, at the conclusion of which he was given many presents by Hal. In order to fulfil his oath the former cut off the legs of an image of wax, and then returned to his country.17

Certain similarities between these two stories may be noticed. The Chinese story is earlier than the Persian; and in the latter it is possible to find an echo of the former. In the king of Kāśmīra we may recognise Kanishka, for a Kanishka is recorded in the Rājataranginī as the king of that country. Hāl = Hāla appears in the Puranic lists as the name of an Andhra (Sātavāhana) monarch. Hī It is, however, not necessary to conclude that this particular Sātavāhana king is intended here. The term Hāla may be the same as Sāla, as sa is actually noted to have changed into ha in certain legends on Sātavāhana coins from

the Deccan.²⁰ This Sāla may be an abbreviated form of Sālāhaṇa, and the latter a Prakrit form of the name Sātavāhana.²¹ So Hāla may here denote a Sātavāhana monarch.

It should, however, be noted that there is no evidence of the Sātavāhana occupation of the whole of Sind. Nevertheless, some data, which will be discussed presently, may be interpreted as betraying at least their temporary political or military success in some areas in or near Sind. It is not impossible that the memory of such an association was in course of time distorted enough to appear to an uncritical chronicler of Sind as indicating the Sātavāhana authority over the whole of the Sind region. And as a writer of the chronicle of Sind he was probably also reluctant to allow the king of Kashmīr to score a victory over Hāl, who was supposed to have been a ruler of Sind. Such twisting of a current legend was a commonplace in early and mediaeval times.

A similar story was narrated in Al Bīrūnī's Tahqīq-i-Hind, mainly based on materials collected from A.D. 1017 to 1030 and written sometime in or before his death in 1048.²² According to Al Bīrūnī, this legend was related by the people. It refers to King Kanik, the builder of the vihāra of Purushwar (i.e. Peshawar). The king of Kanoj (or Kanauj) presented him with a fine piece of cloth. On this, however, was imprinted one foot of a man. Kanik took it as an insult. He led his army against the king of Kanoj. As the latter was not strong enough to resist the invasion, his minister played a trick. He multilated his nose and lips, and met Kanik with

the complaint that the King of Kanoj had caused this injury. The minister offered to show Kanik a shorter route across a desert, which would lead to a place where the king of Kanoj had been hiding.

The minister, however, purposely misled the army in the desert. Scarcity of water seems to have caused great inconvenience to Kanik's army. Kanik now realised the minister's mischief. However, he procured sufficient water for his troops by thrusting his spear into the desert.

The minister then thought that it would be futile on his part to play any further trick on such a powerful monarch. He requested Kanik to pardon the king of Kanoj. Kanik set him free and told him that his master had already received his deserved reward. Then Kanik returned. The minister also went back to his master, only to learn that the latter's hands and feet had fallen off exactly when Kanik thrust his spear into the desert.²³

Kanik, the builder of the vihāra of Peshawar, is obviously Kanishka I, to whom this act of merit seems to have been ascribed by epigraphic as well as literary sources.²⁴ As Al Bīrūnī heard this narrative much later than the latest possible date for the origin of the legend eoncerning similar exploits of a king also called Kanishka, it would be fair to suppose that the story-teller of Al Bīrūnī's age had the latter story in mind, but referred to the king of Kanauj in place of king Sātavāhana. Probably by the time of Al Bīrūnī the name Sātavāhana was comparatively unfamiliar, whereas Kanoj or Kanauj was too well-known a city in contemporary.

India²⁵ to be excluded from any current interesting historical legend.

All these stories thus share the same peculiar feature,—a quarrel over an imprint on a cloth. Again, at least one of the two principal characters may be the same in all the legends. Two refer to the name Kanishka—one stating its variant Kanik—and the third mentions the King of Kashmir, a phrase by which a monarch called Kanishka, cited in the Rājataranginī, could have been denoted. The name king Sātavāhana is expressly referred to by one legend and indicated by another.

These considerations tempt one to suggest that all these legends evolved out of a common prototype. And since the Chinese one is the earliest attested (c. 650 A.D.), it itself is the original legend or at least is likely to be closer to the original than either of the other two. Since this Chinese version deals with the rivalry between Kanishka and King Sātavāhana, the original story, if it is not the Chinese one, may also have dealt with the same monarchs.²⁶

It appears that a story concerning the rivalry between a monarch called Kanishka and King Sātavāhana was current in North India from a fairly early period (at the latest from c. A.D. 650). It no doubt contained, as did many legends having a historical basis, some miraculous and fictitious elements, such as dismembering of enemy's body by cutting off parts of a gold statue, etc. Different modified forms of this legend were later adopted by subsequent writers of early mediaeval

times. These alterations were the results either of deliberate distortions by story-tellers and writers to suit their own ends, or of gradual, but natural, corruptions of legends, or of both. Nevertheless, the very existence of these modifications indicates that the original story, concerning the rivalry between a ruler called Kanishka and king Sātavāhana, was popular in North India.

However, there cannot be any question of accepting the whole of the legend, even if it was popular, as a part of sober history. For we cannot deny the possibility of the growth of a purely imaginary legend even about a strictly historical figure. Nevertheless, when a popular story corroborates information already gathered from reliable contemporary sources, the central theme of that legend may be accepted as having some historial basis.

As we have already noted above, Kanik, the hero of Al Bīrūnī's story, was the same as Kanishka I. Hence Kanishka, the central figure of the cognate Chinese legend, may also have been the first Kushāṇa monarch of that name.

The expression Sātavāhana is known to have been used as the appellation of a royal family, ²⁷ as the personal name of one or two members of that dynasty, ²⁸ and as signifiying the surname of one of its rulers having a separate forename. ²⁹ The word concerned can also be traced in territorial names. ⁸⁰ In the Chinese story the term Sātavāhana obviously denotes a person. Hence it may mean a scion of the Sātavāhana family, having this or a separate appellation as his personal name.

The Kushana monarch Kanishka I's rule of at least 23 years probably began in A.D. 7831 (Chapter IV). Our discussion in the next chapter will try to establish that the majority, if not all, of the 24 known regnal years of the Satavahana king Gautamiputra Sātakarni should be placed in the last quarter of the 1st century A.D. It may also have been possible that he did not cease to rule before the first decade of the 2nd century A.D. (Chapter IV). On the other hand, his son and successor, Vāśisthīputra Putumāvi, ascended the throne sometime in the closing years of the 1st century A.D. or in the first decade of the 2nd century A.D. He was the sovereign head of the Sātavāhana state for at least up to sometime of the 24th year of his reign and also for the greater part of the first quarter of the 2nd century A.D. 32 (Chapter IV).

These hypotheses suggest that either Gautamiputra Sātakarņi was the Sātavāhana contemporary or both he and his son Vāsishṭhīputra Puṭumāvi were the Sātavāhana contemporaries of Kanishka I. Hence, if there is any historical core of the Chinese legend, the last mentioned king clashed either with the father or with the son.

There are indeed areas of possible contact between Kanishka I and the Sātavāhanas. The Nasik inscription of the year 19 of Vāśishṭhīputra Puṭumāvi describes Gautamīputra Sātakarņi as one "who crushed down the pride and conceit of the Khatiyas" (Khatiyadapa-māna-madana). Miss B. Ghosh has very convincingly argued that the Khatiyas should be identified with the Xathroi of Alexander's historians, the

Khatriaioi of Ptolemy and the Kshatriya tribe of some ancient Indian sources.³⁴

According to the Geography of Ptolemy, some of the cities of the Khatriaioi were to the west of the Indus and some to the east of that river. One such locality was Soudassana. The latter is presumably the same as Sadūsān, placed by Ibn Haukal in Sind and apparently to the west of the Indus. Hence the Khatriaioi of Ptolemy may be located in the same area. The same area.

Ptolemy's Geography, which refers to the Khatriaioi, may be dated to c. A. D. 150 or to any year (or years) between c. A. D. 141 and his death sometime in the period ranging from c. A. D. 161 to 185 (Appendix III).³⁸ And if he was not hopelessly out of date in his information on the Khatriaioi, Gautamīputra Sātakarni, a king of the last quarter of the 1st. century A. D. (and the first decade of the 2nd century A. D. ?), might have humiliated the Khatriaioi somewhere in Sind.

In this connection we may refer to another passage of the above mentioned Nasik epigraph. It describes him as the lord, interalia, of the Parichāta (mountain), and of Aparamta, Kukura, Suratha, Ākara and Avamti. The Parichāta or Pāriyātia "corresponds to the portion of the modern Vindhya range west of Bhopal, together with the Aravalli mountains. Aparamta or Aparānta may have included North Konkan and the Nasik and Poona districts. The identification of Kukura is not certain. At least we cannot follow D. C. Sircara theory connecting it with North Kathiawad.

the Juuagadh inscription of c. A. D. 149-150 refers to Kukura in addition to mentioning Anartta, comprising generally North Kathiawad and thereabouts, 43 and Surashtra, including at least South Kathiawad.44 In fact, Suratha or Surashtra of the Nasik record may denote, inter alia, the whole of Kathiawad. Gautamīputra Sātakraņi's rule in the Aravalli region, North Konkan and nearby territories, and also in South Kathiawad (definitely a part of Surashtra), implies his authority over the adjoining area including North Kathiawad. But in the list of the provinces of Gautamiputra's kingdom there does not appear any name which indicates North Kathiawad alone. Nor can we confidently place in the same region any of the mountains, of which he has been described as "lord"45 and at least a part of each of which may have been in his dominions. 46

This difficulty can be solved only by assuming a wider connotation for the term Suratha or Surāshtra of the Nasik epigraph. The statements of certain classical sources also bear out the feasibility of such a geographical connotation. The Periplus of the 1st century A. D. (Appendix II) defined Syrastrene as forming the coastal region of Arabica, of which the inland portion called Iberia bordered on Scythia.⁴⁷ The latter territory, which was on sea and through which the Sinthus (i. e. the Indus) flowed into the ocean,⁴⁸ apparently included at least a part of the country on the lower Indus.⁴⁹ Arabica itself marked "the commencement of the Kingdom of Manbanos and of the whole of India."⁵⁰ And since in some classical accounts the Indus was noted as forming the western

boundary of India,⁵¹ Syrastrene or the littoral Arabica might have extended in the west at least up to or near the easternmost mouth of that river.⁵² Ptolemy even described Syrastrene as situated "about the mouths of the Indus and the gulf of Kanthikos" (i. e. the gulf of Kutch).⁵⁴

The name Syrastrene was certainly based on the term Surāshţra.⁵⁵ Hence the testimonies of the Periplus and Ptolemy may be considered to suggest that Surāshţra was not always confined to South Kathiawad and might have sometimes stretched at least up to or near the easternmost mouth of the Indus and so obviously incorporated North Kathiawad. As Manbanos (Manbanus) or Nahapāna, ⁵⁶ the lord of Syrastrene, was exterminated by Gautamīputra Sātakarṇi ^{56a} (Chapter IV), the latter might have annexed the coastal area up to or near the Indus. Thus Surāshţra under the Sātavāhana monarch could possibly have included parts of south-easternmost Sind or areas lying near it.

The Kushana authority in the region of modern Sind is well attested. The Hou Han-ehu speaks of the conquest of T'ien-chu or Shen-tu by the Yilehchih and the Kushana monarch Yen-Kao-chen. 57 or V'ima Kadphises. 58 The topographical description of this territory indicates that it included the of the Sindhu country to the west ancient lower Indus and perhaps also parts of the land to the east of the same section of that river. 59 The Kushana begemony in the lower Indus area might have been acknowledged at least up to sometime in the reign of Vasudeva I. This indicates the rule of Kanishka I, the successor of Vima and a predecessor of Vasudeva I (Appendix I), in this region.

Another piece of evidence may perhaps testify to Kanishka I's hold over at least parts of the territories near or on the lower Indus. In the ruined stūpa of Sui Vihar, situated about sixteen miles to the southwest of the town of Bahawalpur, was found a copper plate inscription dated in the 11th year of (the reign of) king Kanishka.⁶¹ The date apparently refers to the Kanishka Era.⁶² And as Kanishka I reigned from the year 1 to the year 23 of that reckoning, he should be identified with the monarch mentioned in this epigraph.⁶³ Its provenance further suggests that in the 11th year of Kanishka I's reign the Sui Vihar area was within the Kushāṇa empire.

Sui Vihar is not far from the possible northern limits of ancient Sauvīra, which in the early centuries of the Christian Era was on the eastern side of the lower Indus and included at least parts of the territory later annexed to the British province of Sind.⁶⁴ Hence the provenance of the inscription in question may perhaps also allude to Kanishka I's influence in or near the northern zone of the lower Indus region.

These premises tend to mark out the area now known as Sind as one of the possible regions of contact between Kanishka I and the Sātavāhana monarch Gautamīputra Sātakarņi or his son Vāsishthīputra Pulumāvi. We must, however, admit that the inferences from the above premises are not altogether flawless. It is not absolutely certain

that Ptolemy's information on the habitat of the Khatriaioi (in the territory now included in Sind) is datable or applicable to the period of Gautamiputra Sātakarni. Again, as geographical or political boundaries of a country vary in different ages, the western limits of Suratha, i. e. Surashtra, under this Satavahana sovereign, may not have been the same as those of Syrastrene, i. e. Surashțra, mentioned by the Periplus or by Ptolemy. observation holds good, even if one argues that Suratha or Surashtra in the time of Gautamiputra Sātakarņi had transcended its natural frontiers. Moreover, we have no definite reason to suggest that Kanishka I's rule extended to some areas to the south-east of and not far from the eastern limits of modern Sind, which acknowledged the supremacy of Gautamīputra Sātakarni.65

These uncertain factors need not necessarily be faced in suggesting another possible zone of contact between Kanishka I and the Sātavāhanas. We are referring to Ākara, which, in the early centuries of the Christian Era, certainly included the land now called Eastern Malwa. 66

As we have noted above, Gautamīputra Sātakarņi was the 'lord' of this Ākara.⁶⁷ In the heart of Eastern Malwa is Sanchi, Kākanāda or Kākanādabota of some early Indian epigraphs.⁶⁸

Here excavations have yielded an inscription, engraved in Kushāna Brāhmī on the pedestal of an image of the Buddha. The epigraph is dated in the year 22 of King Vaskushāna (rājno Vaskushānasya). To It is impossible to deny the existence of the name

Kushāṇa in the expression Vaskushāṇa. So it may be taken for granted that the inscription of the year 22 refers, as do all epigraphs mentioning Kushāṇa monarchs and dated in any year below 100, to the era of Kanishka I.⁷¹ The only ruler who could have ruled in the year 22 of this reckoning and whose name could have been corrupted into Vaskushāṇā was Vāsishka Kushāṇa. In fact, this suggestion has already been made.^{71a}

The same king is mentioned in another record from Sanchi, inscribed in Kushāna Brāhmī on the pedestal of a Boddhisattva statue. The epigraph notes the dedication of the image and a shrine in the Dharmadeva monastery in the year 28 of (Mahārājā) Rājātirāja Devaputra Vāsashka.⁷² The form Vāsashka is a mistake for or a variant of the name Vāsishka.⁷³

It is only natural to suggest that these inscriptions indicate the authority of the Kushāṇas over the Sauchi area, Eastern Malwa or Ākara, at least during the years 22 to 28^{74} apparently of the Kanishka Era. Since Kanishka I reigned, at least until the year 23, Vaskushāṇa or Vāsishka Kushāṇa was his co-ruler in the year $22.^{75}$ Hence the region in the heart of Ākara was annexed to the Kushāṇa empire before the end of Kanishka I's rule.

Thus in the land of Ākara Kanishka I could have clashed with the Sātavāhana sovereign Gautamīputra Sātakarņi, the 'lord of Ākara'. It is also not unlikely that Vāsishthīputra Pulumāvi, who inherited Gautamīputra Sātakarņi's dominions, was the Sātavāhana rīval of Kanishka I. 76

The existence of these possible areas of contact indicates that the legend, bereft of its fanciful elements like the miraculous death of king Sātavāhana, may have a definite historical core. This, no doubt, lends historical colour to the Chinese or the earliest of the known legends and suggests that either it or its still earlier prototype was inspired by a historical fact. Nevertheless, as both the possible zones of contact lay outside the Deccan, the legends never prove the advent of the Kushāna power in the Deccan in the time of Kanishka I. 78

NOTES

- 1. JA, 1936, vol. ccxxvIII, p. 98.
- 2. The text of the Yu Yang tsa tsu is preserved in the Tsin tai pi shu, the Pai hai, the Hiotsin t'ao yuan and certain other Chinese works. There is also an independent edition published in A. D 1608 by Li Yun.Kou. For a list of these treatises, see TP, 1912, s. II, vol. XIII, p. 378. n. 4.
- 3. Wylie placed the Yu yang tsa tsu at the end of the 8th century A. D. (A. Wylie, Notes on Chinese Literature, p. 155). This date was generally accepted by Sinologists (See G. Schlegel, TP, 1892, vol. III, p. 128, f. n. 1; E. Chavannes, Die Inscriptions de l'Asie Centrale, p. 46; TP, 1905, s. II, vol. VI, p. 549; B. Laufer, Chinese Poetry, pp. 286-239; Ed. Huber, BEFEO, 1906, vol. VI, p. 38). P. Pelliot, who first believed in A. Wylie's suggestion (BEFEO, 1906, vol. VI, p. 376, f n. 1), later proved it to be wrong. P. Pelliot also furnished very good reasons

- for placing the date of composition of our work in c. A. D. 850 (TP, 1912 s. II. vol. XIII, pp. 374-375, f. n.). S. Lévi accepted the latter date (JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 98).
- 4 BEFEO, 1906, p. 38; ch. VIII, p. 7 of the reprint of the Yu yang tsa tsu in the Ts' in tai pi shu.
- 5. 'Que la relation de Wang Hiuan-tsö ait fourni a Touan Tch'eng-che le texte sur Kanishka et Satavahana, c'est fort possible. Mais l'argument tiré de la mention du savant indien est sans valeur. Le seul lien qu'il y ait entre son histoire et le voyage de Wang Hiuan-ts'ö est qui c'est Wang Hiuan-tsö qui le ramena de l'Inde en 684, en meme temps qu'A-lo-na-chouen. Mais tout l'episode que reconte Touan Tch'eng-che se passe a Tcha'ng-ngan, a la capitale des T'ang, postérieurement au retour de Wang Hiuan-t'sö, et il n'y a pas de raison pour que cet épisode ait é'é inséré dans sa narration; en tout cas, on le connaissait sans elle `a Tch'ang-ngan." (TP, 1912, s. 11, vol. XIII, p. 375).
- 6. JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 98.
- 7. JA, 1900, s. 1X, vol. XV, p. 297, f. n. Wang Hsuan tzu visited India in A. D. 643, in A. D. 646-648 and again in A. D. 657 (R. C. Majumdar (editor), Classical Age, pp. 120-21, 137 and 610).
- 8. TP, 1912, s. vi, vol. XIII, pp. 307-309.
- 9. See above n. 7.
- 10. Chapter v, p. 5 of the reprint of the work in the Ts'in tai pi shu. See also BEFEO, 1906, vol. vi, p. 38; JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 98.
- 11. The text has Kia.tang or Kia-che-kia tang. Huber has very correctly amended it as Kia-ni-che-kia (BEFEO, 1906, vol. VI, p. 38). S. Lévi accepted the reading Kia-ni-so kia (JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVII, p. 98).

- 12. The term "Five Indies" means five regions—north, south, east, west and central—of India, and thereby indicates the whole of India. See also JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 98.
- 13. H. M. Elliot and J. Dowson, The History of India as Told by its Own Historians, vol. I, pp. 100 ff; JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, pp. 100-101.
- 14 About the chapter in question the author of the the Mujmalu-t Twārīkh observed that "I have seen an ancient book of the Hindus which Abu Salih bin Sha'aib bin Jāmi translated into the Arabic from the Hindwani language. This work was translated into Persian in 417 A. H. (1026 A. D.) by Abu-l Hasan 'Ali bin Muhammad al Jili........I have here introduced the (account of the) origin of the king and short history of them, and I have copied it because it is not to be found anywhere else". (H. M. Elliot and J. Dowson, op cit., vol. 1, pp. 100-101).
- 15. Reinaud was of the opinion that the original Sanskrit (?) work had been written about the commencement of the Christian Era, long prior to the date of composition of the Rajatarangini and probably even before that of the Mahābhārata. H. M. Elliot did not contradict this opinion and only noted the similarity between certain passages of the great epic and some extracts from the Mujamalu.t Tawarikh (Ibid., vol. 1. p. 101). There is, however, no real basis for the whole of this epinion. As the Persian translation of the Indian original was done in A. D. 1026, the latter was no doubt long before the date of the Rajatarangini. This is all that can be said with certainty. The similarity between certain parts of this work and those of the great epic may be due to the author of the former's knowledge of the latter.
- 16. Hal is connected with the family of the mythical Jandrat, or Jayadratha of the epic fame. (Ibid., vol. 1,

- p. 107). Hāl is described as the inheritor of the possessions of Jandrat and his descendants (*Ibid.*). Jandrat is said to have been a ruler of Sind (*Ibid.*, vol. 1, p. 104). So Sind should also be supposed to have been under Hāl.
- 17. Ibid., vol. 1, pp. 106-108.
- 18. M. A. Stein, (editor), Kalhana's Rājataranginī, book 1, vol. 1, p. 8.
- 19. DKA, p. 41.
- 20. CCADWK, p. 45. On some of Yajñasti's coins from Western India the phrase Siri Yaña Sātakani has been changed into Hiru Yaña Hātakani.
- 21. Mélanges d' Indianisme Offerts Par Ses Élèves A M. Sylvain Lévi, pp 6-7; Sālāhaņammi Halo (Hemachandra, Desīnāmamālā, VIII, 66).
- 22. E. C. Sachau, The Chronology of Ancient Nations, pp. viii-ix; E. C. Sachau, Alberuni's India, vol. 1, p. xvi.
- 23. E. C. Sachau, *Alberuni's India*, vol. 11, pp. 11.13; *BEFEO*, 1906, vol. vi, p. 38.
- 24. CII, vol. II, pt. I, p. 137; Kao seng Pa-hsien Chuan, Taisho Tripiţaka, vol. II, no. 2085, p. 858; Hsi-yü-chi, Taisho Tripiţaka, vol. II, no. 2087, p. 879; British Museum Quarterly, 1964, vol. XXVIII, pp. 41-42.
- 25. R. C. Majumdar (editor), The Age of Imperial Kanauj, p. 38; R. C. Majumdar (editor), The Struggle for Empire, p. 50.
- 26. Kalhana, who composed the Rājataranginī in c. A.D. 1148.1149 (M. A. Stein, Kalhana's Rājataranginī, vol. 1, p. 15), narrated a similar legend concerning Mihirakula, the king of Kāsmīra and a monarch of Simhala. Once Mihirakula became angry on noticing a foot print on the garment covering the breast of his queen. He learnt that this cloth came from Simhala and was marked with the imprint of a foot of its king. Thereupen Mihirakula led an expedition against the

sovereign of Simhala, and replaced the latter by another man (M. A. Stein, Kalhana's Rājataranginī (text) book 1, vv. 294-299; M. A. Stein, Kalhana's Rājatarangini, vol. 1, p. 35; JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 101).

The peculiar feature of this story—the struggle caused by the appearance of the imprint of a foot—is so similar to those of the three other legends that it seems there may have been some relation between them. At least S. Lévi appeared to have thought so (JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 101).

It may appear that during the period of more than a hundred years that elapsed between the dates of the Tahqiq-i-Hind and of the Rajatarangini the association, of the name Kanishka with this particular kind of stories was forgotten. It is not impossible that Kalhana or his informant brought into the legend the names of Mihirakula, the king of Kāsmīra, and the monarch of Simhala or Ceylon, lying very near to South India, probably because he had a vague recollection of the association of this type of legends with one king of Kāśmīra and another from the South. In fact, Kalhana referred to a Kanishka as a king of Kāsmīra (M. A. Stein, Kalhana's Rājataranginī (text), book 1, v. 168; M. A. Stein. Kalhana's Rāiatarangini, vol. 1, p 8), and the Satavahanas ruled in South India.

There may, however, be an objection to the above interpretation. Neither of the two principal characters of the Chinese story appears in the present legend. And this makes us suspicious of the value of associating the latter with the cycle of the Kanishka-Satavāhana lēgends. At least, in the present state of our knowledge, it is better not to postulate such an association.

^{27.} El, vol. VIII, p. 60.

- 28. ASWI, vol. v, p. 64; JNSI, 1960, vol. XXII, pp. 138 f. It is not necessary to ascribe the coins bearing the name of Satavahana to more than one king (Indian Studies Past and Present, 1965, pp. 65-66).
- 29. ASWI, vol. v, p. 64; JA, 1936, vol. ccxvIII, pp. 66 ff.
- 30. EI, vol. 1, p. 6.
- 31. PHAI, pp. 465 f; Bibliotheca Orientalis, 1963, vol. xx, pp. 229 f; Monthly Bulletin of the Asiatic Society, January, 1967, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 4; D. C. Sircar, Indian Epigraphy, pp. 258 f etc.
- 32. In this connection see also the arguments of K. Gopalachari (Early History of the Andhra Country, pp. 54-55); M. Rama Rao (PIHC, 1948, p. 72); G. V. Rao (EHDY, pp. 104-105); etc.
- 33. E1, vol. VIII, p. 60.
- 34. Indian Culture, 1934, vol. 1, pp. 512-515. See Arrian, Anabasios Alexandrou, VI. 15; Ptolemy, VII, 1, 64; J. W. McCrindle, The Invasion of India by Alexander the Great, p. 156.

In this connection we may refer to the word Kathika appearing in an inscription on a casket found within an earthen pot in a stupa at Devnimori in the Sabarkantha district of Gujarat state (Indian Archaeology, 1962-63, A Review, p. 8; Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1962, vol. XII, pp. 172-73). epigraph records inter alia the erection of a stupa, apparently the same one where it is found, and the making of the casket itself. The term Kathika occurs in the section which fixes the date of the erection of the stupa "on the 5th day of the month of Bhadrapada in the year 127 of the Kathika kings, and when the illustrious Rudrasena was the ruling monarch" Saptā(pta)vimšaty - adhike Kathika-nrivānām samāgate bda-sate (I*) Bha(Bhā)drapada-pamchama-dine nripatau srī-Rudrasene cha (II*)] (Journal of the Oriental Insti-, 1965, vol. xiv, p. 336).

R. N. Mehta and S. N. Chowdhary identify Rudrasena with Mahakshatrapa Rudrasena I of the family of Rudradaman (I) and refer the year 127 to the Saka Era of A. D. 78, known to have been used on coins und in several inscriptions of the Western Kshatrapas. According to these scholars, Rudrasena, Rudradaman (1), etc., were known as Kathikas. (Ibid. 1962, vol. XII, p 172). D. C. Sircar, following R. N. Mehta and S. N. Chowdhary, identifies Rudrasena with Rudrasena I and attributes the year 127 to the Saka Era. He thinks that the Saka (Kshatrapa) rulers of Western India used the era of their overlords, who were the Kushānas. Hence the reckoning mentioned here as that of the Kathika Kings should equate the Kathikas with the Kushanas. As the term Kathika means "a preacher of the Buddhist faith". it may denote Kanishka (I) and some of his successors, who were great patrons of Buddhism (Ibid, 1965, vol. XIV, p. 337).

The year 127 has been ascribed by V. V. Mirashi to the so-called Kalachuri-Chedi Era of A. D. 248-249. He is of the opinion that Rudrasena, who is not described in the Devnimori inscription as a Kshatrapa or a Mahākshatrapa, was not one of the Western Kshatrapas. His name ending (sena) may connect him with the family of Abhīra Iśvarasena of a Nasik inscription, whom V. V. Mirashi considers as the founder of the era of A. D. 248-249. The same scholar suggests that Kathika may well have been the family name of the Abhīras (Vishveshvaranand Indological Journal, 1965, vol. III, pp. 103-104).

Sounder Rajan also attributes the year 127 to the reckoning of A. D. 248-49 (Journal of the Gujrat Research Society, vol. xxv, p. 289). On the other hand, S. Sankaranarayanan (Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1965, vol. xv, pp. 72-73) and K. F. Sompura (Ibid,

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pp. 64.65) differentiate the era concerned from ail known ones, and assign Rudrasena to the Kathika lineage.

According to the latest results of the excavations at Devnimori, the main portion of the stupa is ascribable to a single period of construction. (Indian Archaeology, 1962-63, A Review, p. 8; Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1965, vol. XIV, p. 339). There is at least nothing to support D. C. Sircar's surmise that the "construction of the stupa was begun in 205 A. D, but was abandoned and was again taken up and completed after a century" (Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1965, vol. XIV, p. 339). No doubt, a similar theory suggesting the original erection in c. A. D. 205 and rebuilding towards the end of the 3rd century A. D. was put forward after a preliminary study of the stupa (Ibid. 1962, vol. XII, p. 175). This has now been proved to be wrong (Ibid. 1965, vol. XIV, p. 339).

It is significant, in the light of the above information, that while the stone casket in question was discovered at a level of about 3.65 m. below the top, a pot containing eight silver coins of the Kshatrapa period was found at a depth of about 7.31 m. from the highest point of the cylinder of the stūpa. (Indian Archaeology, 1962-63, A Review, p. 8). Their relative positions and the available data regarding the construction of the stūpa surely indicate that the casket cannot be dated earlier than the coins.

Among these coins are two pieces of Kshatrapa Viśvasena, who ruled from the year (206 (?) or) 215 to the year 226 (of the Saka Era), i.e. from A. D. 292-3 to 303-4 (ASI, AR, 1913-14, p. 204). This means that the casket could not have been placed within the stūpa before the rule of Viśvasena. Hence the year 127, mentioned in the casket inscription as the date of the

construction of the stupa, cannot be attributed to the Saka Era used by Visvasena.

If the year 127 is referred to the reckoning of A. D. 248 49, the resultant date will be A. D. 375-76. The Western satrapal ruler Mahākshatrapa Rudrasena III is known to have been reigning in that year in Western India (CCADWK, pp. 179 f. and CXIIV), where is Devnimori (called in the inscription as Paśāntika-palli). In fact, his coins have been found in the vicinity of the stūpa at Devnimori. It is also noteworthy that the casket inscription explicitly refers to one King Rudrasena as reigning at the time of the construction of the stūpa.

These considerations tend to refer the year 127 to the era of A. D. 248-49 and to identify Rudrasena of the casket inscription with Mahākshatrapa Rudrasena III. No doubt, it may be argued that the dates on the coins of the Chashtana and the succeeding Kshatrapas of Western India are ascribable to the era of A D. 78 and not to that of A. D. 248-49. (See also Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1965, vol. xv, p. 64). This criticism is not unanswerable, since we have examples of the use of the Malava Era in the Mandasor region after its inclusion within the empire of the Guptas (SI, p. 295), even though the latter had their own system of reckoning. In fact, the Mewasa inscription of the time of the Kshatrapas of Western India is dated in the era of A. D. 248-49 and is referrable to the reign of Mahakshatrapa Rudrasena III (JRAS, 1961, pp. 109-111).

We cannot entertain V. V. Mirashi's objection to the identification of Rudrasena III with Rudrasena of casket inscription on the ground of the absence of the title Kshatrapa or Mahākshatrapa before his name. (Vishveshvaranand Indological Journal, 1965, vol. 111, p. 104). (See also Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1965, vol. xv. p. 70). Neither of these designations appear

before the names of the Western satrapal rulers Chashtana and Rudradaman (I) in the Andhau epigraphs of the year 52 (EI, vol. xvi, pp. 23 f.).

It is equally difficult to support V. V. Mirashi's other attempt to relate Rudrasena to the family of Abhīra Iśvarasena, whom he considers as the founder of the era of A. D. 248 49, and who had name ending in -sena. (Visveshvaranand Indological Journal, 1965, vol. III, pp. 103-164). The expression sena appears in names of several Kshatrapa rulers. It is also not certain whether Abhīra Iśvarasena and none else initiated the era of A. D. 248-49.

Even if one accepts Abhira Isvarasena as its inaugurator, it will not be necessary to assign Rudrasena to his family. For the epigraph simply states that the stūpa was erected in the year 127 of the Kathika Kings and during the reign of King Rudrasena. It never indicates that the name Kathika denotes his family or the dynasty of an overlord. If Rudrasena is taken to have been the same as Rudrasena III of the family of Chashtana, and if Mahākshatrapa Rudra... of a Kanheri record is identifiable with Rudradāman I, the ruling dynasty may be considered to have been known as Kārddamaka. (ASWI, vol. v, p. 78; CCADWK, p. LI). There is at least no reason for connecting Rudrasena with the Kathikas.

As the year 127 cannot by assigned to the Saka Era, the reckoning of the Kathikas should not be equated with that of Kanishka I, during whose reign the era of A. D. 78 may have been initiated. It is indeed fantastic to suggest that the era of the Kushānas was known by the name Kathika, and not by their own name, simply because some of them were patrons of Buddhism.

Similarly, it is not imperative to connect the name Kathika, with the Abhiras, even if the latter were

associated with the era of A. D. 248-49. The Devnimori inscription only shows that in the region concerned a reckoning was known as that of the Kathika kings in its 127th year. It could have been designated by other names before and after that date. For a parallel example we can refer to the era of 58 B. C., which was called Azes Era, Mālava Era, Vikrama Era, etc., in different periods.

Thus the Devnimorl inscription does not describe the Kshatrapas, the Kushānas or the Ābhīras as Kathika Kings (In this connection see also Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1966, vol. xv, pp. 66 f.). It alludes to the rule of Mahākshatrapa Rudrasena III in the 127th year of the era of A.D. 248-49. [This is also the revised opinion of R. N. Mehta and S. N. Chowdhary (R. N. Mehta and S. N. Chowdhary, Evoavation at Devnimori, p. 28)]. The Devnimori epigraph also indicates that the Kathika rulers inaugurated or used that era.

It appears that in Western India there was a Kathika family or tribe, who ruled for some time (in or) before A.D. 375-76. If they can be identified with the Kathaeans, located by Alexander's historians between or "on the far side of" the Acesines and the Hydrotes (Hydraotes) (Strabo, xv, 1, 29-30; Arrian, Op. cit., v, 22), the original homeland or one of the earlier habitats of the Kathikas may have been in the Punjab region of North-Western India. (See also Journal of the Oriental Institute, 1965, vol. xv, p. 65). Later they may have migrated to Western India.

It is tempting to connect the term Kathika with Kathiawad (<Kathiā+wadā<Kathiya+wādā<Kathika+vāţaka), the name of an area in Western India. We are, however, not sure whether the word concerned can be related to the name of the Khatiyas, mentioned

in the Nasik inscription of Balasri (EI, vol. vIII, pp. 60 f).

- 35. Ptolemy, VII, I, 64.
- 36. Ibn Haukal, Ashkālu-l Bilad; H. M. Elliot and J. Dowson, Op. cit., vol. 1, p. 34 and the map facing p. 32 Ibn Haukal lived in the 10th century AD. (Ibid, p. 33).
- 37. Ptolemy, VII, 1, 64.
- 38. In this connection see also Pauly, vol. XXIII, no. 2, col. 1788-1797.
- 39. EI, vol. VIII, p. 60.
- 39a. H. C. Raychaudhury, Studies in Indian Antiquities (2nd edition), pp. 114-115.
- 40 IHQ, 1930, vol. vi, p. 751; EHDY, pp. 33-34.
- 41. It is not unlikely that Kukura was in Gujarat (IA, 1918, vol. XLVII, p. 172, f.n. 1).
- 42. SI, p. 172, f.n. 1.
- 43 The Junagadh inscription of c. A.D. 149·150 refers to Rudradāman I as the lord of interalia Ānartta and Surāsbţra (EI, vol. viii, p. 44), and speaks of Suvi-śākha as ruling on his behalf the whole of these territories (Ibid, p. 45) Since this epigraph also states that Suviṣākha repaired the dam of the Lake Sudarṣana (Ibid.), apparently in the vicinity of Junagadh (IA, 1878, vol. vii, p. 257; JBBRAS os, vol. xviii, pp. 47-60), this lake must have been either in Ānartta or in Surashṭra (Saūskrita College Patrikā 1966-67, pp. 58-59). It also appears from the same source that these were contiguous territories.

The term Swāshţra seems to have survived in Sorath, the name of an area in Southern Kathiawad (BG, vol. 1, pt 1, p. 6). This may indicate that at least South Kathiawad was known in some earlier ages as Surāshṭra (Ibid.). Ānarttapura, referred to in the records of the Maitrakas of Valabhi and identified with Vadnagar in the Mehsana district, is considered to have been connected with Ānartta (Ibid.). So

the latter may have included in some earlier periods certain regions to the east of the Little Rann of Cutch and immediately above Kathiawad (Ibid.). It has also been suggested that Ānartta may have also incorporated Northern Kathiawad (Ibid.).

- 44. See above n. 43.
- 45. EI, vol. VIII, p. 60.
- 46. In this connection see also Our Heritage, 1963, vol xI, p. 65.
- 47. Periplus, sec. 41. See also above Chapter II, n. 86,
- 48. Periplus, sec. 38; Schoff, Periplus, p. 165.
- 49. Schoff, Periplus, pp. 165 166; The Quarterly Review of Historical Studies, 1965 66, vol. VI, pp. 181 f; etc.
- 50. Periplus, sec. 41.
- 51. Megasthenes and Eratosthenes quoted in Arrian, Op. cit., v, 6; Diodorus Siculus, Bibliothekes Historikes, 11, 35; Strabo, xv, 11, 1; NH, vi 21, 56-57; etc.
- 52. See Periplus, sec. 38.
- 53. Ptolemy, VII, 1, 2.
- 54. McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 36.
- 55. Schoff, Periplus, p 176; McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 140; etc
- 56. Manbanos (Manbanus), mentioned in the *Periplus*, has has been identified with Nahapana of inscriptions and coins (*JA*, 1897, s. IX, vol. X, p, 137; *JRAS*, 1907, p, 1043, f.n. 2; etc.).
- 56a. EI, vol. VIII, p. 60; JBBRAS, 1907, o. s., vol. XXII, pp. 223-244; COADWK pp. XLVII-XLIX and LXXXVIII-LXXXIX.
- 57. HHS, ch. 118, p. 9.
- 58. NC, 1889, pp. 269.271; J. Marquart, Erānshahr, p. 209, f.n. 6; TP, 1907, s. 11, vol. VIII, p. 192; B. N. Mukheriee, Studies in Kushāna Genealogy and Chronology, vol. 1, ch. 11, f.n. 24; etc.
- 59. The Quarterly Review of Historical Studies, 1965-66, vol. vi, pp. 181 f.
- 60. Ibid., p. 183; see also Chapter Iv, Sec. C.

- 61. CII, vol. II, pt. I, p. 141.
- 62. Ibid.
- 63. See also Ibid.
- 64. SI, p. 172, f.u. 1; see also our article in Our Heritage, 1967, vol. XV, and Imperial Gazetteer of India, 1931, vol. XXVI, pl. 38.
- 65. In this connection see CCADWK, pp. XXX f.
- 66. IA, 1878, vol. VII, p. 259; BG, vol. I, pt. I, p. 36; vol. xvI, p. 631; CCADWK, p. XXXIII and f.n. 1.
- 67. El. vol. VIII, p. 60.
- 68. CII, vol. 111, p. 31.
- 69 H. Hamid, R. C. Kak, and R. P. Chanda, Calalogue of the Museum of Archaeology at Sanchi, pp. 29 30, no. A 82; J. Marshall, A. Foucher and N. G. Majumdar, The Monuments of Sanchi, vol. 1, p. 386, no. 829; vol. 111, pl. Cv, no. C; CXXXVIII, no. 53.
- 70. See above n. 69.
- 71. We may also refer here to J. E. Van Lohuizen-De Leeuw's attempt to refer the epigraph of Vaskushana to the year 122 of the Kanishka Era (Scuthian Period. pp 312-314), However, since the date of this document is definitely written as year 22, and since there is no reliable evidence indicating the system of omitting the figure of hundred in the reckoning of the Kanishka Era, we need not accept the interpretation of J. E. Van Lohuizen-De Leeuw. For arguments against dating stylistically the image bearing the inscription of Vaskushāna to a period after the first hundred years of the Kanishka Era (Scythian period, pp. 313-314; J. M. Rosenfield, The Dynastic Arts of the Kushans. p. 295. f.n. 22), see our review of J. M. Rosenfield's book (The Dynastic Arts of the Kushans) in East, 1967, vol. 1, no. 2).
- 71a. The ruler concerned has been differently identified as a foreigner ruling in or around Mathura (H. Hamid, R. C. Kak and R. P. Chanda, Op. cit., p. 31), as a

minor Kushāņa feudatory (JRAS, 1947, p. 51), as a successor of Vāsudeva I or Kanishka II | Vāsudeva II) Kushana (?)] (Scythian Period, p. 314), etc. B. N. Puri (IC, 1941-42, vol. vIII, p. 192) and C. R. Krishnamachari (P1HC, 1944, p. 135) were among the first Indologists to recognise in Vaskushāna a reference to Vāsishka Kushāna. However, C. R. Krishnamachari wrongly read the date of the Sanchi record of Vāsashka (= Vāsishka) of the year 28 (n. 72) as the year 68, and hence ascribed the epigraph in question, dated in the year 22, to a different ruler of the same name (Ibid). But the reading 28 is certain (n. 72). Moreover, the Mathura inscription mentioned by Führer as dated in the year 76 and in the reign of Vāsushka (IA, 1904, vol. xxxIII, p. 106, f.n. 55) was never published or inspected by any other scholar, and, as remarked by H. Lüders, was probably never in existence (Mathura Inscriptions, p. 67). So there is no necessity of postulating the theory of two Vasishkas. See also A. L. Basham, BSOAS, vol. xv. p. 97 and J. N. Banerjea, Com. His. Ind., vol. 11, pp 242-243; B. N. Mukherjee, Op cit., vol. 1, ch. 11, f. u. 326.

- 72. SI, pp. 144-145 and f.n. 1 of p. 145.
- 73. The name of the king, mentioned in this epigraph, is read as Vāsashka and also as Vāsuska (SI, p. 144 and f.n. 3). The royal names in some records of the years 24 and 28 are written differently as Vvāsishka, Vāsishka and Vāsashka (JA, 1958, vol. CCXLVI, p. 389). The proximity of the dates of the epigraphs concerned and also the apparent similarity between these names indicate that they denote one and the same person. The generally accepted form of his name is Vāsishka.
- 74. According to N. G. Majumdar, the Sanchi epigraphs of the years 22 and 28 (of the Kanishka Era) are on statues of Mathura red sand-stone and in characters similar to those in contemporary Brāhmī records from

Mathura. Hence, N. G. Majumdar concluded that they were inscribed at Mathura and that their evidence need not necessarily suggest Kushāṇa rule in Eastern Malwa (J. Marshall, A. Foucher and N. G. Majumdar, Op. cit., vol. 1, p. 278; see also S. Srikantha Sastri, Quarterly Journal of the Mythic Society, vol. xxIII, p. 233).

No doubt, the sculptures in question are products of the Mathura school. However, like the Sarnath Bodhisattva image in Mathura red sand-stone, dedicated by Bala (EI, vol. vIII, pp. 173 f), they may have been brought from Mathura to the place of their discovery, and inscribed and dedicated there. From the point of palaeography they have no greater affiliation to the approximately contemporary epigraphs from Mathura than to those of Western India. Moreover, the form of the numeral 20, as it appears in the Sanchi inscription of the year 28, is found in the Nanaghat and Jasdan records in Western India (ASWI, vol. v, pl. II; EI, vol. xvi, pl. facing p. 237; SI, p. 145, f.n. 1), but apparently not in the Mathura records.

Thus none of N.G. Majumdar's arguments appears to be convincing. On the other hand, since the documents in question speak of certain dedications made, apparently, at Sanchi, the political conditions indicated by them should refer to that locality. As a parallel example we can cite the case of the Sarnath inscription of the year 3 of Kanishka I's reign which speaks of a dedication at Vārāṇasi, i.e. Vārāṇasī (including Sarnath in the Kushāṇa age), and alludes to the inclusion of the latter region within the Kushāṇa empire (EI, vol. VIII, pp 173 f).

The Sanchi epigraph of the year 28 thus locates that area within the empire of Vāsishka. On the other hand, the Sanchi record of the year 22 suggests Vaskushāṇa's authority over the same locality. Hence the identification of Vaskushāṇa with Vāsishka

Kushāṇa cannot be questioned on the grounds of the absence of independent evidence of the rule of the latter monarch in the territory in question.

- 75. B. N. Mukherjee, Op. cit., vol. 1, ch. 11, sec. E.
- 76. K. P. Jayaswal once observed that a story, recorded in Somadeva's Kathā-sarit sāgara, indicates rivalry between Kanishka (I) and the Sātavāhanas. The story tells of one Vikramāditya alias Vishamasīla, a king of Ujjayini and a son of king Mahendrāditya. It also refers to Malayavatī, queen of Vikramāditya and a princess of Malayapura. This story also mentions the defeat of the Mlecchas at the hands of Vikramasīkti, a general or a feudatory (literally meaning "a dependent king") of Vikramāditya (Somadeva, Kathā sarīt-sāgara, bk. xviii, chs. cxx and cxxii; N. M. Penzer, The Ocean of Story, being C. H. Tawney's Translation of Somadeva's Kathā Sarīt Sāgara, vol. 1x, pp. 4 and 34 f)

In the Kāmasūtra there is a reference to a queen called Malayavatī who died in the embrace of her husband Kuntala Sātakarņi. K. P. Jayaswal identified this Malayavatī with her namesake in the story of the Kathā-sarit-sāgara. If this identification is correct, Vikramāditya should have been the same as Kuntala Sā'akarņi. K. P. Jayaswal also considered Mahendrāditya as identical with Mahendra Sātakarņi. The latter's name appears above that of Kuntala Sātakarņi in the Purānic lists of kings. According to K. P. Jayaswal, the Mlecchas, referred to in the story of the Kathā-sarit-sāgara, were really the Śakas of Kanishka (I)'s time (JBORS, 1930, vol. xvi, pp. 295-300).

The above hypotheses are, however, untenable. The last one has no basis whatsoever. Neither all Mlecchas were Sakas, nor all Sakas were under Kanishka I. K. P. Jayaswal himself later thought of another Kushāṇa ruler, V'ima, as having been the defeated Mleccha king (JBORS, 1932, vol. xvIII, pp. 9 f).

But the reasons, which reject the identification of the king of the Mlecchas with Kanishka I, should also prove that the second suggestion is also wrong. So also the two queens cannot be identified with each other simply because they had similar names. Moreover, Malayavati of the Kāmasūtra died in king's embrace, whereas that of the Kathā-sarit-sāgara was noted at the end of the story to have been living happily (Somadeva, Op. cit., bk. xvIII, ch. CxXII; N. M. Penzer, Op. cit., vol IX, p. 42). Hence their respective husbands could not have been identical. Consequently, the possibility of the identification of Vikramāditya's father with the predecessor of Kuntala Sātakarni becomes very much slender.

Thus it seems that this story of Vikramāditya has nothing to do with any episode of Kanishka I-Sātavāhana rivalry.

- 77. In this connection we may cite a story in the Tamil epic Śilāppadikāram The story tells of the Chera king Śenguṭṭuvan's adventures in North India in quest of a stone from the Himalayas for making an image of Pattini. The Chera king crossed the Ganges, apparently with the help provided by a certain Nuṛṇuvaṛ Kannar, defeated and captured Balakumāra's sons Kanaka and Vijaya, and returned to his capital after procuring the required stone. Later, he let Kanaka and Vijaya out of prison (Iṭangovaḍigaṭ Sīlāppadikāram, cantos xxvi-xxx; U. V. Saminathaiyar (editor), Śīlāppadikāram, cantos xxvi-xxx; for an English translation, see V. V. R. Dikshitar, The Śīlappadikāram, pp. 292-342).
 - V. Kauakasabhai interpreted the expression Nurrwar Kannar as meaning "hundred karņas" (i.e., hundred ears), equated it with Sanskrit Śatakarņin (sic), and took it to stand for a Sātakarņi of the Audhra or the Sātavāhaua family (V. Kanakasabhai, The Tamils

Eighteen Hundred Years Ago (2nd edition), p. 7; for a slightly different interpretation, see T. G. Arvamuthan, The Kāverī, the Maukharis and the Sangam Age, pp. 50 f. n. 2 and 51, f. n.).

Some scholars have tried to see in the names Kanaka and Vijaya allusions to Kanika (-Kanishka I) and the Khotanese king Vijayakīrti, referred to in a Tibetan treatise (V. V. R. Dikshitar, Op. cit., p. 28).

If these identifications are correct, the legend in question should be taken to indicate Senguṭṭuvaṇ's association with a Sātavāhana Sātakarņi and his victory over Kanishka I and Vijayakīrti.

There are, however, insuperable difficulties in accepting all these suggestions and implications. Suggested dates for Senguttuvan vary from the 1st century A. D. to the 6th century A. D., and so he cannot be placed with certainty within any conceivable period for Kanishka I's reign (V. Kanakasabhai, Op. cit., p. 77; V. V. R. Dikshitar, Op. cit., p. 28; Com. His. Ind., vol. 11, p. 517; P. T. S. Aiyangar, History of the Tamils, pp. 509 and 512 ff). Moreover, the relevant point of the story—the victory of Senguttuvan over Kanaka (Kanishka I) and Vijaya (Vijayakirti) after receiving some help from Nuruvar Kannar—is not corroborated by any source definitely ascribable to the age of Senguttuvan (Com. His. Ind., vol. 11, pp. 522-523).

No doubt, the Śilappadikāram itself indicates its author as a brother of Śenguttuvan (canto xxx, vv. 165-182), and it has been taken by some scholars as a product of the age of that monarch (V. Kanakasabhai, Op. cit., p. 208; V. V. R. Dikshitar, Op. cit., p. 66; etc.). It is also true that the Manimekalai, another Tamil epic, also refers to Śenguttuvau's victory over Kanaka and Vijaya (Manimekalai, bk. xvi; S. Krishnaswami Aiyanger, Manimekalai in its Historical elling, p. 189).

It should, however, be noted that the authenticity of the supposed relationship between Senguțțuvan and the author of the Silappadikāram is questioned on the basis of more important data (Com. His. Ind., vol. 11, Moreover, after a critical analysis of the geographical, linguistic and metrical evidence contained in this epic and also after taking into consideration its probable indebtedness to other North Indian and Tamil texts, S. Vaiyapuri Pillai has assigned it to about the middle of the 9th century A.D. (S. Vaiyapuri Pillai, History of Tamil Literature, pp. 147-157). almost similar analysis of the contents of the Manimekalar led the same scholar to date it to the first quarter of the 9th century A.D. (Ibid., pp. 152.153). do not maintain that all of his arguments are conclusive; but they are strong enough to prevent us from being dogmatic about the ascription of either of these epics to a period much earlier than the 9th century A.D. or to the age of Senguttuvan himself. Hence, no statement on Senguttuvan, recorded in these treatises and uncorroborated by any other reliable source, can be accepted as strictly historical.

It is true that the association of Kanaka with Vijaya indeed reminds us of Kanika (=Kanishka I) and Vijayakirti of the Tibetan source. Moreover, Nurruvar Kannar can mean hundredfold Kanna=Sutakanna, and the latter may perhaps be considered as a corruption of the name Sātakarni (Sātakarni>Satakarni>Śatakarna=Nurruvar Kannar?). This name is known to have been shared by some rulers including a few of the Sātavāhana family. One of them was Gautamīputra Sātakarni, who might have been a contemporary of Kanishka I. Hence, it may be guessed that the original author of the epic legend in question was acquainted with a vague memory of the

struggle between Kanishka I and a Sātavāhana king, and that he adopted that tradition to suit his own ends.

It should, however, be admitted that the resemblances between the names of Kanaka and his associate Vijaya and those of Kanika and his compatriot Vijaya-kīrti may have been purely accidental. Moreover, Vijayakīrti is not known to have helped Kanika—Kanishka I against the Sātavāhanas. Hence the epic story in question cannot be cited as an example of the persistence in South India in later times of the memory of the Kanishka I-Sātavāhana struggle.

78 We may here refer to the testimonies of the Tsa paotsang ching (JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII, p. 81; JA, 1896, s. IX, vol. VIII, pp. 446, 469 and 472; Nanjio, 1329; Taisho Tripitaka, p. 203, ch. VIII, p. 484) and the Fu fa-tsang yin yüan chuan (JA, 1936, vol. CCXXVIII. p. 81; JA, 1896, s. IX, vol. VII, pp. 447 and 476; Nanijo. 1340: Taisho Tripitaka, 2058, ch. v. p. 315). The first mentions twice the victory of Kanishka (I) (Chi-ni-cha) over three of the four regions of the world (Taisho Trinitaka, no. 203, ch. vii, p. 484), and the second his successful campaign in (the alludes to countries bordering) the three seas (Ibid., no. 2058, ch. v, p. 317). It can be argued that one of the "three regions" may have been the "south" and may here include South India. It is also possible to argue that the very same area, surrounded by the seas, may be intended by the second work. However, we must concede that such general descriptions of conquests are only conventional and are too vague to admit of any definite conclusion.

CHAPTER IV

EPILOGUE

Α

It appears that none of the non-Indian data, considered by some scholars as indicating the presence of the Kushānas in the Deccan, has any real bearing on the subject concerned. A few of them are, however, relevant to the history of the Kushānas in other parts of the Indian subcontinent.

The importance of Indian coins and inscriptions for the study of the relationship between the Deccan and the Kushana monarchs, including Kanishka I, will be discussed in detail in a separate volume. It will, however, be necessary to recount here certain chronological data for a proper understanding of the problem of Kanishka I's relationship with the Deccan.

 \mathbf{B}

Ptolemy refers to Ozene, a place in Larike, as the royal residence of Tiastenes. This ruler has been identified with Chashtana of coins and inscriptions, and Larike (Lar+ike) is considered to have been based on the word Lāṭa, Lāḍha or Lār. Lāṭa geographically denotes only Southern Gujārat between

the Mahi and the Tapti.⁴ As Ozene or Ujjayinī is not known to have ever been within the geographical limits of Lāṭa, its inclusion in Larike suggests that Ptolemy's Larike was a political unit. Larike probably comprised the territory ruled by Tiastenes (Chashṭana), referred to as the king of Ozene. Hence the incorporation of Nasika in Larike indicates that Chashṭana held Nasik at least for a certain period.

Nasik was under Nahapāna from his year 41 to at least sometime of his year 45 (i.e., up to his year 44+X),5 under Gautamīputra Sātakarņi, the conquerer of Nahapāna, from at least the first day of the second fortnight of the rainy season of his 18th regnal year to at least the fifth day of the fourth fortnight of the rainy season of his 24th regnal year (i.e., for more than six years),7 and under Väsishthiputra Śrī Pulumāvi, the son and successor of Gautamiputra,8 at least up to the summer season of his 22nd regnal year (i.e., for nearly 22 vears).9 Hence Chashtana, whose rule probably ended after that of Nahapāna,10 could not have occupied Nasik earlier than nearly (6+22) 28 years which are to be dated after 44+X years of Nahapāna. On the other hand, Mahākshatrapa Chashtana must have ruled Nasik before his grandson Rudradaman I became the Mahākshatrapa by the month of Mārggaśirsha of the year 72 (of the Śaka Era),11 (i.e., November-December of A.D. 149-50). This means that 44+X years of Nahapāna must be placed nearly 28 vears before November-December of A.D. 149-50, or by November-December of A.D. 121-22. And as the year

44 of the Śaka Era (which began in March of A.D. 78¹²) could not have been completed before March of A.D I22, the year 44+X of Nahapāna, to be dated by November-December of A.D. 121-22, should not be assigned to the same era. This inference is further strengthened by the considerations that "X" of the "year 44+X" of Nahapāna may represent several months, if not nearly a full year, and that Gautamiputra and his son could have held Nasik for some years more than the known periods of their reigns.

If the date on a recently noticed inscription referring to Chashṭana has been correctly read as the year 11,13 and if that year can be assigned, like the dates on the coins of his family, to the era of A.D. 78,14 then he might have been ruling in A.D. 88-89. If Chashṭana ruled after Nahapāna, the year 44+X of the latter must not be referred to the era of A.D. 78. It may, however, be argued that the provenance of the record of the year 11, which appears to have been discovered in the present state of Gujarat, 14a may not indicate his rule in Nasik in Western Deccan, where Nahapāna ruled at least up to his year 44+X.

If Chashtana had begun his rule by the year 11 (of the era of A.D. 78), it was unlikely for him to continue to rule long, if at all, after the year 52 (of the same reckoning) in which the Andhau inscriptions, referring to him and (his grandson) Rudradaman (I), were dated. This means that he probably began to control Nasik by the year 52 or A.D. 129-30. So Pulumāvi, who ruled

there at least up to sometime of his 22nd year (i.e., up to his year 21+X), probably began to reign not later than (129/30-21) c.108-9 A.D. His father's reign in Nasik, which lasted for more than 6 years, should have started by (c. A.D. 108/9-6) c. A.D. 102-3. So Nahapāna, who was ousted from Nasik sometime after his year 44+X and by sometime of the 18th regnal year of Gautamīputra, for probably did not begin to rule later than [c. A.D. 102/3-(44+X)] c. A.D. 58-59.

Ptolemy probably gathered much of his information on India during the years of his astronomical calculations from A.D. 127 to 141 (Appendix III). He included among his informants on India, persons who had visited Simylla.¹⁷ This locality was a part of Ariake Sadinon, 18 which also had within its limits Baithana, the royal residence of Siri Polamaios. 19 So the date or dates of Ptolemy's source or sources of information on thist erritory and king Polamaios might not have been much, if at all, earlier than A.D. 127. Ariake Sadinon was the territory of the Satavahanas (Chapter II). Siri Polamaios has been identified with Vāśishthīputra Śrī Pulumāvi. 19a This identification is justifiable, since there could not have been a great interval between the latest possible date for the beginning of Pulumāvi's rule (c. A.D. 108-9) and the earliest possible date for the source of Ptolemy's information about Polamaios (to be placed not much. if at all, earlier than A.D. 127).

If Vāsishthiputra Pulumāvi was on the throne not much, if at all, earlier than A.D. 127, the earliest possible date for the initial year of his reign need

not be placed, in the present state of our knowledge, more than decade before c. A.D. 108-9, the year by which he should have begun to rule. Such an inference suggests that Pulumāvi ascended the throne sometime in the closing years of the 1st century A.D. or in the first decade of the 2nd century A.D. So his 24 known regnal years of the 2nd century A.D. Hence the first quarter of the 2nd century A.D. Hence the majority, if not all, of the 24 known regnal years of his father and predecessor on the Sātavāhana throne, Gautamīputra Sātakarṇi, 21 should be placed in the last quarter of the 1st century A.D. It might also have been possible that Gautamīputra Sātakarṇi did not cease to rule before the first decade of the 2nd century A.D.

dating for Gautamiputra Sātakarni Such suggests that the earliest possible date for the inauguration of the rule of Nahapāna, who Nasik sometime after his from 44+X and by sometime of the 18th regnal year of Gautamiputra, need not be placed, in the present state of our knowledge, more than a decade earlier than the latest possible date for such an event, i.e., c. A.D. 58-59. So the period of reckoning to which his known dates (like years 41, 42, 45 and 46)²² are to be assigned began sometime between c. A.D. 48-49 and 58-59. The years 41, 42, 45 and 46 cannot be referred to any known era and hence should better be considered, in the present state of knowledge, as regnal years. 23

Such a chronological position for Nahapāna does not go against the suggested identification of him

with Manbanos (Manbanus) mentioned in the Periplus as ruling over Syrastrene (Surashtra) and some other tracts of Western India.24 Manbanus exercised or at least began to exercise his authority in those areas in or (rather well) before c. A. D. 150, the latest possible date for any event synchronising with the period when the author of the Periplus could have collected information on India (Appendix II). Nahapāna, like Manbauus, ruled over Surāshtra and some territories of Western India²⁵ and lived well before c. A.D. 150. Moreover, it can be suggested, on the analogy of Indian names Mahī, Dakshināpatha, and *Pārasamudra having been transliterated in Greek respectively as Mais, Dakhinabades and Palaisimoundou, 26 the form Nahapāna, appearing on some coins of Nahapāna,27 could well have been expressed in the same language as Nanban(0s). And since the forms of the letters mu and nu in the Heidelberg manuscript of the Periplus are very similar to each other,28 it seems probable · that the scribe or concerned inadvertently wrote Manbanos in place of Nanhanos. 29

If Manbanos (Manbanus)-Nahapāna began to rule sometime between c.A.D. 48-49 and 58-59, he could not have started his career as a subordinate of Kanishka I, who ascended the Kushāna throne much later than c. A D. 58-59. According to the Hou Han-shu, Shen-tu was conquered by Yen-kao-chen³⁰ or V'ima Kadphises.³¹ The information of the Hou Han-shu, on Shen-tu was mainly derived from the report of Pan Yung prepared in c. A.D. 125.⁸² In fact, the

statement in the Hou Han-shu that "at this time they (i. e., the people of Shen-tu) all belong to the Yüeh-chih", 33 should refer to the date of the source of Pan Yung's information and not to the age of the author of the Hou Han-shu, who died in c. A.D. 445³⁴ and by which period the Kushāna empire must have disintegrated. This means that the Yileh-chih occupied Shen-tu by c. A. D 125. Shen-tu, the name of which was based on the Indian name Sindhu, 35 was on the lower Indus. 36 We have shown elsewhere, on numismatic grounds, that this region was under the Kushānas (Yiieh-chih) from sometime of the reign of V'ima Kadphises to at least sometime of the first year of the reign of Vāsudeva I.37 His first kuown year is 64 or 67 (of the era of Kanishka I), though he might have become the supreme Kushāna ruler even in the year 60 of this reckoning, which is the last known date of his predecessor on the Kushana throne, viz., Huvishka. Hence Shen-tu(Sindhu) was in the Kushana empire by c. AD. 125 and from sometime of the reign of V'ima to at least sometime of the year 60 of the Kanishka Era. This period of the Kushana hegemony ["X" period of the reign of V'ima +(59+y)years of the reckoning of Kanishka I] must be placed before the month of Marggasirsha of the year 72 (of the era of A.D. 78)38 (i.e., November-December of A.D. 149-150), when Rudradaman I held, inter alia, Sindhu (Shen-tu) as an independent ruler. 39 Hence the commencement of the first year of the Kanishka Era, which began with the reign of Kanishka I, should not be placed after November-December of

(A. D. 149/50-59=) c. A.D. 90-91. On the other hand, since V'ima, who ruled before Kanishka I, imitated a coin-type of the Parthian monarch Gotarzes II, whose reign began in c. A. D. 38,40 Kanishka I himself probably ascended the Kushāṇa throne well after that date. These arguments date the year I of the Kanishka I's reign well after A.D. 38, but not later than c. A.D. 90-91. This inference and the fact that Kanishka I is known to have been associated with an era indicate that it may well have been the same as that of A. D. 78.

At least none of the current theories places Kanishka I before A D. 78.⁴¹ Hence if our dating of the period is even approximately correct, Nahapāna could not have begun his career as a subordinate of Kanishka I.

There are other difficulties in connecting Nahapāna with the Kushānas. We have already shown that the Periplus indicates that Manhanus (Nahapāna) was ruling, inter alia, Barygaza (Broach) at a time when the "warlike nation of the Bactrians" was in occupation of certain areas above Proclais or Pushkalāvatī (modern Charsada region) (see above pp. 30-31). Such territories might well have been in Ta-hsia, which included Wakhan, Badakhshan Kafiristan and Chitral and which embraced the eastern parts of Bactria as understood by Ptolemy. 42 Ta-hsia was controlled by the Yileh-chih from the 2nd century B.C.43 The Kushānas, which formed a branch of the Yiieh-chih, held the whole of Ta-hsia from the days of Kujula Kadphises to the time of the downfall of the Kushana empire in the second half of

the 3rd century A.D. 44 And since Bardesanes (c. A.D. 154-222) 45 actually called the Qushani (i. .e., the Kushans or Kushāṇas) as Bactrians, 46 the king of the "warlike nation of the Bactrians," mentioned by the Periplus, 47 could well have been a Yüeh-chih or rather a Kushāṇa monarch. The Periplus appears to confine the Indian possessions of these Bactirans (= Yüeh-chih or Kushāṇas) to the extreme northwestern parts of that subcontinent at a time when Manbanus (Nahapāna) had already become the ruler of Syrastrene and some other tracts of Western India. Hence there seems to be no reason to believe that Nahapāna began his career as a subordinate of the Kushāṇas, including Kanishka I and his predecessors V'ima Kadphises and Kujula Kadphises. 48

We cannot, however, altogether brush aside the theories suggesting an association of the family of Chashtana with the Kushānas. 49 The title Kshatrapa. which appears on some of his coins, essentially denotes a subordinate status. Though the Cutch Museum inscription referring to him and to the year 11 (of the era of A.D. 78) need not necessarily suggest his rule beyond the Cutch region, 50 it lay near the lower Indus area which had been once at least partly occupied by the Kushanas. And if the reckoning started in the reign of Kanishka I is considered to have been the same as the era of A.D. 78, it was not altogether impossible for Chashtana to serve that Kushāna monarch. It may also be claimed that the group of Chashtana used to swear allegiance to the Kushanas until its independence was asserted by Rudradaman I, whose Junagadh

inscription of about the year 72 (i.e., c. A.D. 149-150) described him as one who had "himself acquired the name of Mahākshatrapa."⁵¹

Even if all these arguments are found acceptable, the Cutch Museum inscription of the year 11 does not prove that Chashtana was in that year a ruler of Dakshināpatha as defined above (Chapter I).⁵²

 \mathbf{C}

The upshot of this discussion is that none of the sources, Indian as well as non-Indian, conclusively demonstrates the historicity of the rule of Kanishka I or any preceding Kushāṇa monarch in the Deccan. **

How far his successors were able to assert Kushāṇa authority in that territory will be the subject of our study in a separate volume.

The period of Kanishka I, however, witnessed the beginning of the Kushāṇa thrust towards the Deccan. We have already noted that Ākara or Eastern Malwa, situated near the Deccan, was annexed to the Kushāṇa empire before the end of Kanishka I's reign⁵⁴ (see above p. 78). Thus if Kanishka I did not rule the Deccan, he might have been active in its neighbourhood.⁵⁵ This conclusion itself indicates one of the stages of the growth of the Kushāṇa power in India.

NOTES

- 1. Itolemy, VII, 1, 63.
- 2. BG, vol., I, pt. I, p. 540; EHD, p. 39; McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 153.
- 3. McCrindle, Ptolemy, p. 38.
- 4. BG, vol. I, pt. I, p. 7. B. Indraji observed long ago that "the country between Broach and Dhar in Malwa...is still called Rāṭha" (Ibid.. p. 7). It is, however, not certain whether the name Rāṭha was based on the term Lāṭa and not on the word Rāshṭra (Mahārāshtra).
- 5. EI, vol. vIII, p. 82.
- 6. CCADWK, pp. xxxvii and Lxxxix; El, vol. viii, p. 60.
- 7. EI, vol. VIII, pp. 71 and 73.
- 8. Ibid., p. 60.
- 9. Ibid., p. 65. The Nasik epigraphs referring to Vāsishthīputra Pulumāvi are dated in his 2nd, 6th, 19th and 22nd regnal years. These dates indicate that he was perhaps in continuous occupation of Nasik from his accession to the throne to at least sometime of his 22nd regnal year. The Karle inscriptions referring to him are dated in the years 7 and 24 (see CCADWK, pp. L-L1).
- 10. CCADWK, p. 80. There is no real evidence to support the theory that Nahapāna ruled later than Chashţana (JA, 1961, vol. CCXLIX, pp. 455-457; NC, 1964, pp. 276-280). On the other hand, certain data indicate the weakness of such a hypothesis. Gautamīputra Sātakarņi destroyed the Kshaharāta family and re-struck coins of Nahapāna, while Gautamīputra's son and successor Vāsishthīputra Pulumāvi and a few of his successors imitated a coin-type initiated by Chashţana (El, vol. VIII, p. 60; CCADWK, pp. LXXXIX, 45 and 72; JNSI, 1952, vol. XIV, pp. 1 f; 1949, vol. XI, pp. 59 f; etc.). The last-mentioned person ruled over, inter

alia, a substantial part of the territory included in different periods in the dominions of Nahapāna and in the kingdom of Gautamīputra. These facts certainly suggest that the rule of Chashţana probably ended after that of Nahapāna.

- 11. El vol. VIII, pp. 40 and 42.
- 12. R. Sewell and S. B. Dikshit, *Indian Calendar*, pp. 27 and 52; D. C. Sircar, *Indian Epigraphy*, pp. 258 f; etc. Each year of the Saka Era starts from the month of Chaitra (March-April) or with the sun's "entrance" in the Zodiacal sign of Mesha (coinciding with the completion of Chaitra).
- 13. Indian Archaeology, 1967-68, A Review, p. 52.
- 14. E. J. Rapson, Indian Coins, p 22.
- 14a. See above n. 13.
- 15. El, vol. xiv, pp. 23 f.
- 16. CCADWK, p. XLVII; EI, vol. VIII, pp. 60 and 71.
- 17. Ptolemy, I, 17.
- 18. Ibid., VII, 1, 6 and 82.
- 19. Ibid., vII, 1, 82; see also Renou, Ptolemy, p. 35, f.n. 14.
- 19a. BG, vol. 1, pt. 1, p. 37; see also McCriudle, Ptolemy, p. 177.
- 20. See above n. 9.
- 21. See above n. 7.
- 22. El, vol. VIII, p. 82; SI, p. 166.
- 23. The dates of Nahapāna have been referred by some scholars to the era of 58 B.C. (A. Cunningham, Coins of Mediaeval India, p. 3; AHD, pp. 20-21; JRAS, 1926, pp. 652 and 655; JBBRAS, ns, vol. 111, pp. 66-69; EHDY, pp. 100 f.; etc.), and by some to the era of A. D. 78 (EHD, pp. 38-39; BG, vol. 1, pt. 1, p. 29; IA, 1897, vol. xxvi, p. 153; E. J, Rapson, Indian coins, p. 22; CCADWK, p. cv; PHAI, pp. 488-489; AIU, p. 180, f. n. 1; JIH, 1933, vol. xxi, p. 43; IHQ, 1950, vol. xxvi, p. 218; Com. His. Ind., vol. 11, pp. 275-277; etc.).

- A.M. Boyer (JA, 1897, s. 1x, vol. x, pp. 120-151) and J.F. Fleet (JRAS, 1912, p. 992) considered Nahapāna as the founder of the Śaka Era of A. D. 78. A few Indologists have observed that the known years of Nahapāna should be taken as his regnal years (PIHC, 1950, pp. 39-40; S. Chattopadhyaya, Śakas in Iadia, pp. 44 47; Lalit Kalā, no. 3-4, pp. 15 f, etc.). It may be pointed out here that the busts on the coins of Nahapāna show him as young, middle-aged, old-aged and very old-aged, and thereby indicate a long reign for him. We may also note that the Jaina Harivamāa of Jinasena ascribes 42 years of rule to Naravāhana (= Nahapāna?) (Jinasena, Harivamāa Purāṇa, (published by the Bhāratīya Jaina Sāhitya Prakāśinī Samsthā), ch. 60, 491).
- 24. Periplus, sec. 41.
- 25. CCADWK, p. LVI. See also above p. 75.
- 26. Periplus secs 41, 50 and 61. The Periplus refers to Pālaisimoundou as denoting the same island which was "called by the ancients as Taprobane". Taprobane or Ceylon is alluded to by the expression Pārasamudralatā [i. e., belonging to (a region called) Pārasamudra] occurring in the Arthasāstra of Kauṭilya (2, 11) (see also R. G. Basak, Kautilīya Arthasāstra, vol. 1, p. 110). Ptolemy was probably wrong in considering Palai of the expression Palaisimoundou as meaning "formerly" (Ptolemy, VII, 4, 1). It may be noted here that in certain Latin manuscripts of Ptolemy's Geography the term Sandano(rum) appears as a transliteration probably of the name *Sādāhana (see above p. 33).
- 27. JBBRAS, 1907, os, vol. xxII, p. 229; JRAS, 1912, p. 785, f. n. 3.

- 28. The Heidelberg manuscript of the *Periplus* was personally examined by the present author. See *JA*, 1897, s. IX, vol. x, p. 137.
- 29. Ibid.; JRAS, 1907, p. 1043, f. n. 2.
- 30. HHS, ch. 118, pp. 9-10.
- 31. B. N. Mukherjee, The Kushāņa Genealogy (Studies in Kushāņa Genealogy and Chronology, vol. 1), p. 93, f. n. 24.
- 32 TP, 1907, s. 11, vol. VIII, p. 168; Our Heritage, 1967, vol. xv, pt. 11, p. 5.
- 33. See above 11. 30.
- 34 TP, 1907, s. 11, vol. VIII, p. 149.
- 35. Our Heritage, 1967, vol. xv, pt. 11, pp. 5-7.
- 35. Ibid., p. 7.
- 37. See our article in PCDK. See also B. N. Mukherjee, An Agrippan Source—A study in Indo-Parthian History, pp. 221f and 233.
- 38. EI, vol. vIII, p. 44.
- 39 Ibid., p. 41.
- 40. JNSI, 1960, xxII, pp. 109-112.
- 41. For detailed discussions on the different theories concerning the date of Kanishka I, see PHAI, pp. 465 f; AIU, pp. 143 f; etc.
- 42. B. N. Mukherjee, An Agrippan Source—A Study in Indo-Parthian History, pp. 111-113.
- 43 Ibid, pp. 110-111.
- 44. HHS, ch. 118, p. 9. B. N. Mukherjee, The Kushāņa Genealogy (Studies in Kushāņa Genealogy and Chronology, vol. 1), pp. 86-90.
- 45. B. N. Mukherjee, The Kushāņa Genealogy (Studies in Kushāņa Genealogy and Chronology, vol. 1), p. 57, f. n. 182.
- 46 Ibid., p. 22; W. Cureton, Spicilegium Syriacum:
 Containing Remains of Bardaisan, Meliton, Ambrose and
 Mara Bar Serapion, pp. 21 and 82.
- 47. Periplus, sec. 47.

48. It may be argued that each of the titles Kshatrapa and Mahākshatrapa, ascirbed to Nahapāna, essentially implies a subordinate status, and that they may indicate his subordinate position at least for a certain period. (See also CCADWK, pp. CV-CVII). But these titles were not assumed only by the Kushāņa subordinates. Hence the evidence in question cannot prove that Nahapāna ever served the Kushāņas.

The word suvarna (meaning gold or rather gold species), which appears in a Nasik inscription of the time of Nahapāna (EI, vol. VIII, pp. 82), has been interpreted to denote Kushāna gold coins (CCADWK, p. CLXXXV; IA, 1918, vol. XLVII, p. 76). But suvarna of the Nasik inscription may very well denote Roman gold coins. The Periplus refers to the import of gold coins into the Barygaza area (sec. 49).

For our arguments against other hypotheses associating Nahapāna with the Kushāņas, see part II of The Kushānas and the Deccan.

- 49. See CCADWK, pp. cvf; IA, 1918, p. 76; IA, 1913, vol. xLII, pp. 189-190; EHI (3rd edition), pp. 209-211; (4th edition), p. 222; CII, vol. II, pt. I, p. LXIX-LXX; B. N. Puri, India Under the Kushāṇās, pp. 22-23; etc.
- 50. Indian Archaeology, 1967-68, A Review, p. 52.
- 51. EI, vol. VIII, p. 44.
- 52. For a detailed study of the problems touched upon in this chapter, see the part II of the Kushāņas and the Deccan.
- 53. Discoveries of certain Kushāna coins in the Deccan (JNSI, 1955, vol. XVII. pt. II, p. 109; 1964, vol. XXVI, p. 228; B. C. Jain, Inventory of the Hoards and Finds of Coins and Seals from Madhya Pradesh, pp. 5-6) cannot by themselves prove that the Kushānas ruled in the Deccan. For such coins might well have found their way to the Deccan through trade and

JA1. 1

- commerce. Similarly, the title Mahākshatrapa, ascribed to one Rūpiamma in an epigraph discovered in the Bhandara district (Summary of papers, Inian History Congress, 27th Session, 1965, p. 28), cannot by itself alone prove that he was appointed as a Mahākshtrapa by the Imperial Kushāṇas. (See above n. 48).
- 54. A passage in Taranatha's Rgya-gar-chos-hbyun states that "in the land of Tili and Malava king Kanika, young in years, was chosen as sovereign. Twenty-eight diamond mines having been recently discovered, he lived in great wealth" (Schiefner, Taranatha (text), pp. 70.71; Schiefner, Tāranātha (translation), pp. 89.90). Taranatha, no doubt, distinguished Kanika from Kanishka, identifiable with Kanishka I. We have, however, already pointed out the fallacy of making such a distinction (see above Chapter II. n. 51). Diamond mines were actually worked in or near Malwa (Mālava) in the Mughal period, in which age Tāranātha flourished. Kosa, described by Ptolemy as a place "where are diamonds" (Ptolemy, VII, 1, 65) might have been in or not far from Eastern Malava or Akara. The word Akara itself literally means "mine". Rudradaman I, who had Akara under him, had his treasury overflown with precious stones including vaira or diamond obtained through tributes, tolls and shares. The diamonds could have been found in Akara or its neighbourhood. It appears that Eastern Malava was already famous for its mines in the Kushana age. These premises probably lead to the inference that by the name Mālava Tāranātha indicated his contemporary Malwa, in which was the territory once known as Akara. If such a hypothesis is accepted, his evidence may allude to the Kushana occupation of Bastern Malwa. As Kanishka I was the first Kushana king to occupy that territory, he could have been hyperbolically described as "a chosen" Kushana

sovereign (c. f. EI, vol. VIII, pp. 43 and 47; vol. IV, p. 248 etc.).

Diamond was an important article of Indo-Roman commerce (E. H. Warmington, Commerce Between the Roman empire and India, p. 236). The Kushāṇas are known to have been much interested in this Indo-Roman trade and actually made much profit out of it (The Quarterly Review of Historical Studies, 1965-66, vol. v, pp. 181 f). Hence rich diamond mines might have been one of the important factors alluring the Kushāṇas to occupy Ākara.

55. If Chashtana served Kanishka I for a certain period the provenance of his inscription of the year 11 (C. A. D. 88-89) may be considered to indicate the presence of a subordinate of that Kushāṇa monarch in an area near the Deccan.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

KUSHĀŅA GENBALOGICAL TABLE

MIAOS (or HERAOS)1

(Second half of the 1st century B.C.)

?

KUJULA KADPHISES

(From sometime before c. I B.C. to about the middle of the 1st century A.D.)

Ţ

V'IMA KADPHISES

(From about the middle of the 1st century
A.D. to c. A.D. 78)

7

KANISHKA (I)=? A son of V'ma

[From the year I (?) (first known date—year 2)=c. A.D. 78-79 to the year 23 of the Kanishka Era]

:

VĀSISHKA (Vajheshka)²

(Year 22 to year 28)

KANISHKA (II)

(Year 30 +x to year 41)

HUVISHKA8

(Grandson of V'ma)

(Year 28 to year 60)

?

VÃSUDEVA (I)

(Year 64 or 67 to year 98)

?

KANISHKA (III)

(Year 94 to sometime in or before A.D. 230)

?

VĀSUDEVA (II)⁴

(From c. A.D. 230 or earlier to c. A.D. 262 or sometime before that year)

NOTES

- 1. This genealogical table is prepared on the basis of the arguments furnished in B. N. Mukherjee, The Kushāṇa Genealogy (Studies in Kushāṇa Genealogy and Chronology, vol. 1), ch. 11.
- 2 On a coin published by R. Göbl one may read the obverse legend as B (or K?) azeshko........(R. Göbl, Dokumente zur Geschichte der Iranischen Hunnen in Baktrien und Indien, vol. III, Wiesbaden, 1967, pl. 8, no. 1). Göbl attributes this coin to a second Vāsishka (Ibid., vol. II, pp. 308 and 312-313). It is, however, not certain whether the first letter of the royal name is B and not K and whether what is read as zeta is not a blundered nu or a part of the flowing ends of the fillet tied to the trident appearing near the legend in the obverse type. Moreover, we are not absolutely sure of the genuineness of the coin.
- 3. A Mathura inscription found at Mat refers to a devakula as belonging to the grandfather of Huvishka. Another epigraph, found at the same place, refers to Vimo (i.e., Vima) and alludes to the erection of apparently the same devakula during the reign of Vima (-V'ima). This suggests that V'ima was the grandfather of Huvishka. It appears that the members of the Kadphises group and the house of Kanishka might have belonged to one and the same Kushāna royal family. (For detailed discussion on these epigraphs and other relevant problems, see B. N. Mukherjee. Op. cit., pp. 56f).

The forms kapasa, kaphasa, kapsa, kaphsa, kavsa, kadaphasa, kadaphes, kadaphiza, etc.,, appearing along with the royal name on coins ascribable to Kujula, and the expression kapphisa and kapisa, occurring together the name of Vima on his coins, can be connected with the term kadphis(es), which was used as a title on the

species of both these rulers (Ibid., pp. 45, 47 and 94-95). H. W. Bailey has shown that from Old Iranian *Kāta-paisa, meaning "of honoured form", can be derived the Middle Iranian kadaphes and kadphis(es) (BSOAS, 1949-50, vol XIII, p. 396). The form kasa, noticeable on some pieces attributed to Kujula (B. N. Mukherjee, Op. cit, p. 45), can be related to *kavasa (kavsa) on the hypothesis of the elision of the intervocalic va. These arguments indicate that kadphises and other related forms were used as royal titles. So their presence on the coins of Kulula and V'ima need not suggest that they belonged to a family which was different from that of Kanishka I.

under a separate class called that of the Later Kushāṇas (NC, 1893, pp. 112 f; AlU, p. 151). R. Ghirshman observes that "tout les sources indiennes que parleut des Tukhāras (qui sont des Kouchaus) insistent uniformément sur be nombre quatorze de leurs rois". He believes that this number fourteen means fourteen kings of the four Kushāṇa families. The members of the first dynasty were Heraos, Kujula and Vima, those of the second were Huvishka (the grandfather of Kanishka), Vāsishka (the father of Kanishka), Kanishka, Huvishka and Vāsudeva, those of the third were Vāsudeva II, Kanishka II and Vāsudeva III, and those of the fourth were Kidāra, Piro and Varahrān (Bēgram, pp. 164-165).

We have shown elsewhere that the Kadphises rulers and the members of the house of Kanishka I belonged to one and the same family. We have no real evidence to prove that the grandfather and father of Kanishka I were called respectively as Huvishka and Vāsishka (B. N. Mukherjee, Op. cit., pp. 49-50 and 56 f; see also above n. 3). There is also no necessity, at least in the present state of our knowledge, to

dissociate the house of Kanishka I from the family of Vāsudeva II and Kanishka II (really III) (B. N. Mukherjee, Op. cit., pp. 80 f). It is also doubtful whether Kidāra was a genuine Yüeh-chih or a Kushāna ruler (Ibid., p. 92, f.n. 1). These considerations do not allow us either to include Kanishka III and Vāsudeva II in a group separate from that of Kanishka I, or to accept R. Ghirshman's interpretation of the Indian evidence (Puranic source) cited by him.

APPENDIX II

THE DATE OF THE PERIPLOUS TES ERYTHRAS THALASSES

The Periplous Tes Erythras Thalasses or the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea contains an account of the commerce and navigation between Egypt (in the Roman empire) and some other parts of the eastern world including India. H. Frisk's philological analysis of this text indicates, as remarked by J. A. B. Palmer, a single "compiler" of the information contained in it. It is considered that this author was an anonymous Greek sailor, who resided in Egypt and himself visited several countries in connection with that trade. Hence he himself must have travelled by sea to many of the ports referred to in his work before it was finally drafted.

The text, which appears to be a sort of log-book, might have been finalised in the course of his active participation in sea-borne commerce or even long after his retirement from it. In either case his sources were the data gathered at several ports in different years. Hence it is highly probable that all the pieces of information thus collected do not refer to one particular period. Thus an evidence, described by the author of the *Periplus* as contemporary, may allude to any time of his career as a sea pilot, which could not well have lasted for much more than forty or forty-five years.

It is well-known that the Periplus refers to a reigning Nabataean king called Malikos (Malichas).

Since there was no Nabataean kingdom after its inclusion within the Roman empire in c. A.D. 105,0 this information must be placed in or before that year. This would mean that any event synchrousing with the age of our author's maritime career cannot be ascribed to any time after about the middle of the 2nd century A.D.

The same *Periplus* also mentions Manbanos (Manbanus) as reigning over Syrastrene (Surāshṭra) and some other tracts of Western India.⁷ The only person who held such areas before c. A.D. 150 (the latest possible time-limit for the beginning of the rule of Manbanos) and at the same time whose name could have been transliterated into Greek as *Manbanos*, was Nahapāna.⁸ As it has been shown above, such a transliteration is philologically possible (Chapter IV).⁹

We have already noted that the earliest possible date for Nahapāna's rule should not be placed before c. A.D. 48-49 (see above p. 104). This would indicate that the author of the *Periplus* was already a seafarer sometime in or after c. A.D. 48-49, and that the whole of his life as a sailor is to be placed roughly after the epoch of the Christian Era.

These conclusions reveal that any incident, indicated by the author of the *Periplus* as a contemporary one, should be ascribed to sometime between c. A.D. I and 150. A more accurate date for each of such testimonies is to be ascertained on the basis of its internal evidence.¹⁰

NOTES

- 1. Frisk, Periplus, pp. 1 f.
- 2. Ibid., pp. 25-37.
- 3. Classical Quarterly, vol. XLI, p. 140.
- 4. Schoff, Periplus, pp. 15-16; JRAS 1912, p. 783; etc.
- 5. Periplus, sec. 19; C. Müller, Geographi Graeci Minores, vol. 1, p. 272, f.n. 15.

J. Pirenne has tried to read the relevant phrase the Periplus as Malichan Basilea (J. Pirenne, Le royaume sud-arabe de Qataban et sa datation, pp. 188-189). But the scribe or scribes of the Heidelberg manuscript of the Periplus had definitely deleted the first alpha of anabatios by putting a sign of rejection (a semi-vertical stroke) across that letter (Frisk, Periplus, p. 30); and so we must not include it in our reading of the phrase in question. And the only intelligible interpretation of the word nabatios can be given by connecting it with the Nabataeans, a few of whose kings assumed the name "Malich(as)" (Ibid., p. 6; Schoff, Periplus, pp. 29 and 103; G. F.Hill, A Catalogue of the Greek Coins in the British Museum, Catalogue of the Greek Coins of Arabia, Mesopotamia and Persia, pp. XIII-XIX),

- 6. CAII, vol. XI, p. 237.
- 7. Periplus, sec. 41.
- 8. JA, 1897, s. ix, vol. x, p. 137.
- 9. JBBRAS, os, 1907, p. 229; JRAS, 1907, p. 1043, f. n. 2; 1912, p. 785, f.n. 3; etc.
- 10. For different theories about the date of the Periplus advocated up to 1912, see Schoff, Periplus, pp. 7 f and 290-293. For the views expressed subsequently, see JRAS, 1912, pp. 783 f; 1916, p. 835; 1917, p. 823; Janus, 1921, vol. 1, pp. 55 f; Pauly, vol viii, cols. 1660-1661; vol. 1, no. 2, cols. 1298 f; CAH, vol. x, p. 882; Classical Quarterly, vol. xxii, pp. 92 f; vol. xxii, pp. 137 f; W. W. Tarn, The Greeks in Bactria and India (2nd edition), p. 148, f. n. 4; etc.

- J. Pirenne and H. De Contenson have attempted to ascribe the *Periplus* to the 3rd century A.D. (J. Pirenne, *Op. cit.*, pp. 64-65, 200, etc; *JA*, 1960, vol. CCXLVIII, pp. 76f; 1961, vol. CCXLIX, pp. 451f; consult also the opinion of R. C. Majumdar in *IHQ*, 1962, vol. XXXVIII, pp. 89-97). Our arguments against such a conclusion are being published elsewhere. Here we shall refer only to two of our main objections against Pirenne's reasonings.
- J. Pirenne identifies King Malichas referred to in the *Periplus* with a certain Malichas living in the second half of the 2nd century A.D. and distinguishes the former from any Nabataean king of the same name (J. Pirenne, *Op. cit.*, pp. 187 f; *JA*, 1961, vol. CCXL1x, p. 451).

We have already seen that Malichas mentioned by the *leriplus* must have been a Nabataean monarch (see above n. 5), and that there was no Nabataean kingdom after A. D. 106.

J. Pirenne has tried to ascribe Nahapāna, whom she identifies with Manbanus of the *Periplus*, to c. A. D. 225 (JA 1961, vol. cexlix, pp. 456-457).

Any attempt to place Nahapāna in the 3rd century A. D. cannot be accepted in the present state of our knowledge. The Junagadh inscription of Rudradāman I of about the year 72 or c. A. D. 149-150 refers to his reign in Surāshţra and Āuartta or the Kathiawad region. Hundreds of coins of most of the succeeding rulers of his family have been found in the same area (JNSI, 1956, vol. XVIII, pp. 220-221). This should mean the continuous authority of Rudradāman I's dynasty over that zone from at least c. A. D. 150 to the first possible break in its rule, which may have occurred in or after the year 226 or . A. D. 304 (CCADWK, p. CXI,).

The evidence of a few epigraphs of Ushavadāta indicates the inclusion of the same Kathiawad region within Nahapāna's dominions (EI, vol vII, pp. 57 f; vol. VIII, pp. 78 f.).

But the reasons stated above do not suggest his reign in the territory in question in the 31d century A. D. Hence Manbanus, who also held the identical area (*Periplus*, sec. 41) and was the same as Nahapāna, probably did not flourish in c. A. D. 225. Known facts suggest that the rule of Manbanus—Nahapāna ended much earlier.

The upshot of this discussion is that the *Periplus* cannot be placed in the 3rd century A. D.

APPENDIX III

THE DATE OF THE GEOGRAPHIKE HUPHEGESIS OF PTOLEMY

Ptolemy did not, as a contrast to the writer of the Periplus, himself visit India. His knowledge of it was derived from the itineraries of sailors, merchants and travellers as well as written accounts. Hence the date of the composition of his Geographike Huphegesis can only betray the terminus ad quem of the chronology of any such information. The terminus a quo should be determined on the grounds of its own testimony.

According to Suidas, Ptolemy was alive in the time of Marcus Aurelius (A.D. 161-180),3 whereas the the Book of the Firhist of Ibn Abi Ya'kub an-Nadim (c. A.D. 987) indicates that our geographer flourished during the reigns of Hadrian (A.D. 117-138) and Autoninus (A.D. 138-161).4 Thus Ptolemy did not die before A.D. 161. On the other hand, since he is known to have made astronomical calculations between c. March, A.D. 127 and February, A.D. 141,5 he must have been sufficiently mature in age—say at least 20 years old-on the former date. So he was born by c. March of A.D. 107. And if Abulwafa correctly reported that Ptolemy lived for 78 years,6 the date of his birth may be placed between sometime of c. A.D. 83 and c. March of A.D. 107, and that of his death between sometime of c. A.D. 161 and c. March of A.D. 185.

Ptolemy himself referred to his astronomical work Mathematike Syntaxis in his Geographike Huphegesis.⁷ So the latter must have been completed after the former.⁸ The Mathematike Syntaxis or the Almagest⁹ was in its turn subsequent to his astronomical observations made between c. March of A.D. 127 and c. February of A.D. 141,¹⁰ and was presupposed by the contents of the Canobus inscription of A.D. 147-148.¹¹ Hence the Mathematike Syntaxis was written between c. February of A.D. 141 and sometime of c. A.D. 147-148. So the Geography was composed between c. February of A.D. 141 and the death of Ptolemy sometime in the period ranging from sometime of c. A.D. 161 to c. March of A.D. 185.

It should, however, be taken into account that Ptolemy might have written his Geography long before his death. He actually intimated in his Almagest an intention to compose a geographical work, 12 and might have done so immediately or shortly after completing his book on astronomy (between c. February of A.D. 141 and sometime of A.D. 147-148). And since much of his information on India, incorporated in his Geography, 13 may have been gathered during the years of his astronomical calculations from c. A.D. 127 to 141, such data can not reasonably be placed after c. A.D. 150. The more exact date for each of such sources has to be ascertained with the help of internal evidence.

NOTES

- 1. Ptolemy, 1, 7; 1, 12, 9; 1, 17, 3-5; etc.
- 2. JRAS, 1941, pp. 213-222.
- 3. Pauly, vol. XXIII, no. 2, cols. 1782-1790.
- 4. Ibid., col. 1790. E. H. Bunbury observed that "the death of Antoninus is mentioned in the chronological work of Ptolemy called Kanon Basileion" (E. H. Bunbury, A History of Ancient Geography (2nd edition), vol. 11, p. 546, f. n. 3).
- 5. Pauly, vol. XXIII, no. 2, cols. 1788 and 1797.
- 6. Ibid., col. 1790.
- 7. Ptolemy, VIII, 2, 3.
- 8. E.H, Bunbury, Op. cit., pp. 546-547.
- 9. Oxford Classical Dictionary, p 746.
- 10 Pauly, vol. XXIII, no. 2, col. 1788. See also E. H. Bunbury, Op. cit., p. 546, f n. 2.
- 11. The Canobus epigraph is dated in the year 10 of the reign of Antoninus Pius, corresponding to A. D. 147-148 (Pauly, vol. XXIII, no. 2, cols. 1788 and 1823). It has been suggested that Ptolemy himself was the author of this record (Ibid.; Oxford Classical Dictionary, p. 746).
- 12. E. H. Bunbury pointed out that in the second book of Ptolemy's Almagest the author had expressed a desire to compose a geographical work indicating "the positions of principal places on the earth's surface by their latitudes and longitudes" (E. H. Bunbury, Op. cit., p. 547, f.n. 4). This he actually did in his Geography.
- 13. Ptolemy, VII, 1, 1-96; VII, 2, 1f; etc.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

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AI

Ancient India, Bulletin of the Archaeological Survey of India,
New Delhi.

AHD

Jouveau-Dubreuil, G., Ancient History of the Deccan, Pondicherry, 1920.

AIU

Majumdar, R. C. (editor), The Age of Imperial Unity, The History and Culture of the Indian People, vol. II, Bombay, 1951.

Annals (edited by de Goeje, M. J.)

Al-Tabari, Tārīkh-al-rusūl·Wa'l-mulūk (de Geoje, M. J., Selections from the Annals of Tabarī, Semitic Study Series, no. 1, Leiden, 1902; Barth, J., de Goeje, M. J., etc (editors), Annales auctore Abu Djafar Mohammed Ibn Djarir-at-Tabari, 15 vols., Khayats. Beirut, 1965.

ASIAR

Archaeological Survey of India, Annual Reports, Calcutta and Delhi.

ASWI

Archaeological Survey of Western India (edited by Burgess, Jas.), London.

BEFEO

Bulletin de l'École Française: d'Extreme-Orient, Hanoi and Paris, Bégram

Ghirshman, R., Bégram, Recherches archéologiques et historiques sur les Kouchans, Mémories de la Délégation Archéologique Française en Afghanistan, vol. XII, Cairo, 1946.

BG

Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, vol. I, Parts I and II, Bombay, 1896.

BI

Bibliotheca Indica Series, Asiatic Society, Calcutta.

B. N. Mukherjee, Studies in Kushāna Genealogy and Chronology.

Mukherjee, B. N., The Kushāna Genealogy (Studies in Kushāna Genealogy and Chronology, vol. I), Calcutta, 1967.

BSOAS

The Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies, London.

Bühler, Table

Tafel nr. I-IX of Bühler, G., Indische Paläographie, Grundriss der Indo-Arischen Philologie und Altertumskunde, Strassburg, 1896.

CCADWK

Rapson E. J., Catalogue of the Coins of the Andhra Dynasty the Western Kṣatrapas the Traikūṭaka Dynasty and the "Bodhi" Dynasty, London, 1908.

CHI

Rapson, E. J. (editor), Cambridge History of India, vol. I — Ancient India, Cambridge, 1922.

CHS

CII

PanKu, Ch'ien Han-shu(T'ung-

Konow, S., Corpus Inscrip-

tionum Indicarum, vol. II, pt.I,

-Kharoshthī Inscriptions with
the Exception of those of Asoka,

wen shu-chü edition).

Calcutta, 1929.

Com, His, Ind.	Sastri, K. A. Nilakanta (editor), A Comprehensive History of India, vol. II—The Mauryas and the Sātavāhanas, 325 B. C.—A. D. 300, Calcutta, 1957.
CSHI	Allan, J., Haig, T. W., and Dodwell, H. H., The Cambridge Shorter History of India, Cambridge, 1934.
DKA	Pargiter, F. E., The Purāṇa Text of the Dynasties of the Kali Age, Oxford, 1913.
EHD	Bhandarkar, R. G., Early History of the Deccan Down to the Mohammadan Conquest (Utgikar, N. D. (editor). Collected Works of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, vol. III, Poons, 1927, pp. 1-198).
EHDY	Yazdani, G. (editor), The Early History of the Deccan, 2 vols., London, 1960.
##I	Smith, V. A., The Early History of India (3rd edition or 4th edition), Oxford.

EHNI

Chattopadhyaya, S., Early History of North India, From the Fall of the Mauryas to the Death of Harsha, c. 200 B.C. —A.D. 650, Calcutta, 1953.

EI

Epigraphia Indica, Calcutta and Delhi.

Epitoms (or Justin)

Justinus, Epitoma Historiarum Philippicarum (edited by Regnier, A., Paris, 1819).

Eranshalır

Marquart, J., "Eransihr, nach der Geographie des Ps. Moses Korenac'i," Abhandlungen der Koniglichen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Gottingen, ns, vol. III, pt. 2 (1899-1901).

Frisk, Periplu:

Frisk, H. (editor), Le Périple de la Mer Érythrée, Gotebarg, 1927.

HHS

Fan Yeh, Hou Han-shu (Ssu-pu pie-yao edition).

1A

Indian Antiquary, Bombay.

IAAR

Indian Archaeology (Year)-A Review, New Delhi.

IHQ

Indian Historical Quarterly, Calcutta.

India Antiqua

India Antiqua, A Volume of Oriental Studies Presented by his Friends and Pupils to Jean Philippe Vogel, C.I.E., Leyden, 1947.

JA	Journal Asiatique, Paris.
JAOS	Journal of the American Ori- ental Society, New Haven (Connectiout).
JAS	The Journal of the Asiatic Society, Calcutta.
JASB	The Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta.
JBBRAS	Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, Bombay.
JBORS	Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society, Patna.
JIII	Journal of Indian History, Trivandrum.
JNSI	The Journal of the Numismatic Society of India, Calcutta, Bombay and Varanasi.
JPASB	The Journal and Proceedings of the Asialic Society of Bengal, Calcutta.
JRAS	The Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, London.
JRASBL	Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta (see also JASB).
J UPHS	The Journal of the U.P. Historical Society, Lucknow.
K arlgren	Karlgren, B., Analytic Dictionary of Chinese and Sino? Japanese, Paris, 1923.

Lülers, List of Biāhmī Inscriptions	Luders, H., A List of Brāhmī Inscriptions from the Earliest Times to A.D. 400, with the Exception of those of Aśoka (EI, vol. X, Appendix).
Mathura Inscriptions	Lüders, H., Mathurā Inscriptions (edited by Janert, K. L.), Gottingen, 1961.
McCrit dlo, Ptolomy	McCrindle's Ancient India as Described by Ptolemy (edited by Majumdar-Sastri, S. N.) Calcutta, 1927.
Nanjio	Nanjio, B., A Catalogue of Chinese Translation of the Buddhist Tripitaka, Oxford, 1883.
NC	The Numismatic Chronicle (and Journal of the Royal Numismatic Society), London.
NH	Naturalis Historia (Loeb Classical Library edition, 10 vols., London and Cambridge, Mass., 1956-1963).
NIA	New Indian Antiquary, Bombay.
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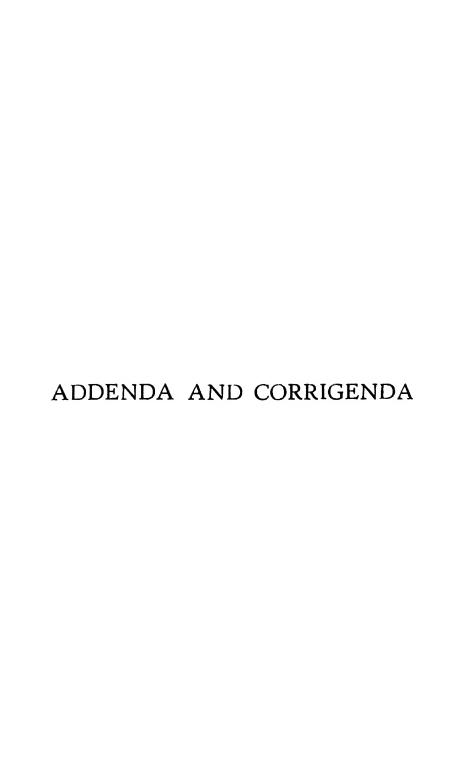
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ADDENDA AND CORRIGENDA

ADDENDA

- 1. p. 16. Add the following after the sentence ending with the term "Deccan" in line no. 35:

 For a general topographical discussion on the Deccan, see also D. Das, Economic History of the Deccan, pp. 1-18.
- 2. p. 40. Add the following after the word "Country" in line no. 26:—

 or Li yul chos-kyi lo-rgyus (The Rleigious

Annals of the Li Country).

3. p. 61. Add the following after "p. 119". in line no. 24:—

See also R. E. Emmerick, Tibetan Texts Concerning Khotan, pp. 78f.

4. p. 115. Add the following after the sentence ending with the word "flourished" in line no. 19:—

(In this connection see Abul Fazal, 'Ain-i-Ākbari, III, 15; H. S. Jarrett and J. N. Sarkar, 'Ain-i-Ākbari of Abul Fazl-i-'Allami, vol. II, pp. 162f; Schoff, Periplus, p. 224; Ball, Travernier's Travels, vol. II, pp. 450-461; R. Roolvink et al, Historial Atlas of the Muslim People, pl. 32).

5. p. 115. Add the following after the sentence ending with the word "Akara" in line no. 32:[The implication of Taranatha's reference

to one "Malava in Prayaga" [Schiefner, Tāranatha (text), p. 190: Schiefner, Tāranātha (translation), p. 251] need not be considered here, since he did not indicate the existence of any diamond mine in or near that Malava region. D. C. Sircar is in favour of identifying this Malava with Malwa in the Fatehpur district (D. C. Sircar, Ancient Malwa and the Vikramāditya Tradition, p. 2). The geographical locations of this and certain other areas known as Mālava in early and mediaeval periods (see ibid., pp. 1-3; K. K. Das Gupta, The Mālavas, pp. 1 f; etc.) do not suit the stipulated conditions for identification with Mālava with diamond mines so well as does Eastern Malwa or Akara 1.

6. p. 116. Add the following after the sentence ending with the word "Akara" in line no. 11:-

[In a much later period a similar allurement led the Mughal emperor Jahangir to take possession of the territory of Kokrah and its diamond mines [Wāki'at-i Jahāngīrī; H. M. Elliot and J. Dowson, The History of India as Told by its Own Historians, vol. VI, Indian edition, 1969, pp. 344-346. In this connection see also A. Rodgers and H. Beveridge, The Tūzuk-i-Jahāngīrī, vol. II, (1968), pp. 21-22].

7. p. 124 Add the following after the sentence ending with the word "evidence" in line no. 30:—

Nevertheless, as the major part of the stipulated period is covered by the 1st century A. D., the work as a whole may be roughly ascribed to that century.

CORRIGENDA

Page no.	Line no.	In Place of	Read
8	29	espicially	especially
8	31	accross	across
14	32	Fo-Kuo chi	Fo.kuo chi
31	8	sub-continent	subcontinent
31	11	Kushāna 68	Kushāṇa 68 (Chap-
			ter IV).
32	23	Hātakaṇi, ⁷⁷	Hātakaņi, ⁷⁶
32	25	(i.e. Sopara).76	(i.e. Sopara).77
32 35	2 7	with either	eith e r with
37	18	'the eastern	the Eastern
		region'	region'
40	23	contignous	contiguous
40	30	aud	and
42	8-10	(the lines printe	d (the lines printed
		originally)	on pasted paper)
45	11	Samyukta-ratnapi-	Samyukta-ratna-
		ṭak a-sūtra	piţaka-sūtra
49	2 .	Kumāralāta.	Kumāralāta
53	2	sec. D and E,	sec. D and E
		in the press	
5 5	6	Cuunin ham's	Cunningham's
5 6	4	mauusaripts	manuscripts
5 6	15	Iruhaņas	Iruhaņasa (or
			Arahaṇasa?)
57	13	placesbaithano	places Baithano
57	21	may be	may perhaps be
57	22	>Arika > Arikha	Arika (?) > Arikha (?)

Page no.	Line no	. In Place of	Read
5 8	12	emendment	amendment
5 8	21	Lymirike	Limyrike
59	8	prcss	press
59	29	Manusamhitā	Manu-samhitā
62	17-20	(the lines printed	(the lines printed
		originally)	on pasted paper)
65	22	cloths	clothes
66	6	kanishka	Kanishka
66	22	Mujmmalu-t	Mnjmalu-t
		Tawārīkh	Tawārīkh
6 8	25	Purushwar	Purushawar
69	24	mnch	mụch
70	32	eariy	early
7 3	23	Parichāta	Pärichāta
75	23	Yen-Kao-chen	Yen-kao-chen
7 8	12	Boddhisattva	Bodhisattva
79	14	Tsin tai pi shu	Ts'in tai pi shu
80	6	Ts' in tai pi shu	Ts'in tai pi shu
80	15	Tcha ng-ngan	Tch'a'ng-ngan
80	3 3	Kia-ni-so kia	Kia-ni-so-kia
82	14	Halo	H āl o
83	14	Tahqīq-i Hind	Taḥqīq-i-Hind-
84	17	Anabasios	Anabaseos
84	35-36	Insti—	Institute
87	28	referrable	referable
88	36	Kathika,	Kathika
90	34	Valabhi	Va labhī
96	27	Iṭangavadigat	Ilangavadigal
101	1	Tapti	Tāptī
102	13	correctly	correctly
102	32	Pulumāvi	Pulumāyi

Page no.	Line no.	In Place of	Read
104 pa	age-heading	KUSHĀNAS	KUSHĀŅAS
111	32	E. J. Rapson	E. J. Rapson
113	36	Periplus	Periplus
115	3	Inian	Indi an
121	11	Kulula	Kujula
133	12	Al-Tabari	Al-Tabari
136	18	Gotebarg	Goteborg
139	7	Thallasses	Thalasses